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**The Acquisition of the English Article
System by Libyan Learners of English: A
Comparison between Deductive Teaching
and Textual Enhanced Input Strategies**

Intesar Elwerfalli

PhD

2013

**The Acquisition of the English Article System by
Libyan Learners of English: A Comparison between
Deductive Teaching and Textual Enhanced Input
Strategies**

Intesar Elwerfalli

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the University of Northumbria at Newcastle for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

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Abstract

Previous research has shown that the English article system poses a great challenge to second language learners of English. Thus, this current study aims at understanding the difficulties first year Libyan students have in acquiring the English article system by using the following three steps.

First, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) was adopted to compare the article system in both English and Arabic. This procedure was employed in order to predict the difficulties that Libyan learners might be confronted by. Therefore, based on CAH, several difficulties were predicted. Moreover, because there are different opinions between researchers from the Arabic world and those from the west regarding the effect of L1 in the acquisition of grammatical items, this study tests what role L1 may play when L2 Libyan learners of English acquire the English article system.

The second part aims to investigate the effectiveness of two kinds of article instruction: an implicit teaching strategy (i.e. textual enhanced input) and an explicit teaching strategy (deductive teaching) with an evaluation of the long-term effects. These teaching strategies were compared in order to:

1. Measure the effectiveness in using the English article system appropriately,
2. Measure grammatical development using t-unit,
3. Measure lexical diversity using TTR.

The experiment was administrated to three groups of ESL first year students at Garyounis University in Libya. One group (TEI) received instructions based on an input enhancement strategy. In order to direct the learners' attention to the target features, the researcher manipulated the learners' input with the aim of provoking development by deliberately engaging awareness and trying to increase the learners' attention.

The second group (DT) was instructed based on the deductive teaching strategy. It was instructed in accordance with two popular grammar books, specifically '*Essential Grammar in Use*' by Murphy (1998) and '*Oxford Practice Grammar*' by Eastwood (1999). The third group, the (CG) served as the control group and received exposure to language through reading passages. The procedure of this group was similar to that of the (TEI) group, with the only difference being that the articles in the texts for this group were not enhanced.

All three groups were given a similar article test three times as the pre- test, post- test 1 and post-test 2. The pre-test was given prior to the treatment so that the results of the test served to ascertain a baseline for all groups. Then, eight weeks later, after the treatment was finished, post-test 1 was immediately given, in order to measure proficiency gains; post-test 2 was given to the students six months later to distinguish the long term effects on the learning process.

With regards to the effectiveness of using the English article appropriately, the results showed that group DT improved from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2. The scores that were above chance in post-test1 & 2 were better than those in the pre-test. In the TEI group, the scores which were above chance, slightly improved from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2. For the CG group, the scores in post-test 1 which were above chance, improved slightly from pre-test and that the scores in post-test 2 reduced from those of the pre-test.

The measurement of lexical diversity was undertaken using TTR. The results showed that both groups TEI and CG presented better results (i.e. development in students' writing) than the DT group in post-test 1. In post-test 2, only the TEI group improved significantly. This result suggests that the TEI group remained unchanged after 6 months of instruction.

The third part of this study analyzed and classified learners' errors. It confirmed the types of errors predicted previously in chapter 3: omission of *a/an/the*, unnecessary insertion of *a/an / the* and confusion between *a* and *an*. The results revealed that the percentage of omission of *a/an* was higher than the omission of '*the*', and that the percentage of unnecessary insertion of *a/an/the* was less than the omission of *a/an/the*.

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Abbreviations

ANOVA	analysis of variance
CAH	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
CG	Control group
CLI	Cross-linguistic influence
CLT	Communicative language teaching
CT	Composition task
DT	Deductive teaching
EA	Error Analysis
EFL	English as a foreign language
FFI	Focus- form Instruction
Fof	Focus on form
FofS	Focus on forms
IL	interlanguage
L1	First language
L2	Second language
MCT	Multiple choice task
NP	Noun phrase
SLA	Second language acquisition
SST	Surface structure taxonomy
TEI	Textual enhanced input
TL	Target language
TTR	type-token ratio

Dictation

*For my father's soul, my mother, my husband, my kids, my sisters,
my brothers, and Aunt Fatima for believing in every step I did and
for their unconditional support*

I am honoured to have you as my family

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Thank you all: my beloved advisors, my parents, my husband and my children. Without their support, all of this work could not have been completed.

Declaration

I declare that the work contained in this thesis has not been submitted for any other award and that it is all my own work. I also confirm that this work fully acknowledges opinions, ideas and contributions from the work of others. The work was done in collaboration with the Farmer's Union Ltd, Wesses.

Any ethical clearance for the research presented in this thesis has been approved. Approval has been sought and granted by the University Ethics Committee on 01/05/2012

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Chapter 1

1.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the background to the study, problems relating to the study, the study objectives, research questions, the significance of the study, an outline of the study together with its scope and limitations. Moreover, it offers an idea as to how and when English is currently taught in Libya.

1.1 Background of the Study

Several recent studies (e.g. Atay, 2010; Crompton, 2011; Kao, Chian, 2013), which examined the nature of second language speakers' interlanguage have concentrated on the acquisition of the English article system. There have been two major reasons for this concern. Firstly, English articles present difficult semantic and syntactic properties that take some time to comprehend. This permits researchers to follow the development of learners' knowledge of these properties as proficiency rises. Secondly, languages vary in terms of whether they have article systems or not. Such dissimilarities between languages allow researchers to assess the impact of L1 knowledge on developing knowledge in L2.

The misuse of the English article system is a major problem for L2 learners in general and for Libyan learners of English in particular. This study aims to examine the causes behind this difficulty. Numerous studies have attempted to account for the particular challenges pertaining to second languages. The first is **Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH)** of which there are two versions. The first, (the strong version) compares two languages, and analyse them, with the purpose of discovering the similarities and differences between them. It claims that the difficulties that learners face are reflections of their native language. That is, L2 learners

transfer rules of their L1 and implement them into L2. Furthermore, CAH may allow researchers to predict and identify errors made by L2 learners. In the present study, systematic comparisons of Arabic and English articles are made in order to predict errors that Libyan learners of English might encounter.

The second version of contrastive analysis hypothesis drew on the errors that learners make and explained their occurrence by pointing to the similarities and differences between L1 and L2. Although CAH was produced in the 1940s, it is now used in some studies with the aim of figuring out whether it can help researchers in predicting some errors and understanding L2 learners' difficulties in the process of learning. A contrastive analysis of English and Arabic, for example, may reveal to the analyst all these dissimilarities between the two languages. Moreover, although CAH was criticised by some researchers, most of the criticism was on the part of predictability power and interference from L1. Some researchers claim that CAH may play a role in the field of language description and teaching/learning materials. Consequently, this study adopts CAH, in order to discern whether it might assist predicting errors that Libyan learners of English may make.

As this study analyses the errors that Libyan learners may make in learning the English article system, an overview of error analysis is required.

The emergence of **Error analysis (EA)** became the optimal option in preference to contrastive analysis from the 1960s up until recently. This did not entail an absolute rejection of contrastive analysis; this method still remains, as it provided a means of analysing errors. Corder (1967), Gass and Selinker (1994), Wetzork (2000) and Johnson (2001) claimed that EA is of considerable significance, as it is concerned with the learner's developing language. They

suggested that when researchers classify learners' errors, they learn more about the process of SLA by adopting learning strategies that learners use to acquire a language. Moreover, EA shows the stage the learner has reached in the process of learning, what kind of difficulties are being faced and consequently, how these problems can be solved. There are two key types of errors: interlingual errors, (those which occur due to the interference of L1 into L2), and intralingual errors, (those which occur due to the inadequate or partial learning of the target language such as overgeneralization and oversimplification). More details are given in chapter 2.

The study of errors has had an enormous impact in the field of second language learning. Some researchers (e.g., Corder, 1967, Johnson, 2001 and Abi Samra, 2003) present three views for this impact. Firstly, errors that learners make should not be considered as evidence of failure. They should be viewed as a mark of students' learning progress. Secondly, errors provide facts about how a language is learnt. Thirdly, errors are seen as devices by which students are able to determine the rules of the target language. That is, learners of a second language occasionally apply previously acquired rules to the target language without proper knowledge of their application. Consequently, they make errors.

Although various research methods have been suggested and carried out to learn facts about second language acquisition, both CAH (from the 1950s) and EA (from the 1960s and 1970s) have been used in numerous recent studies. In fact, contrastive analysis and error analysis complement each another, in the sense that the predictions made by the contrastive studies can be verified and corrected by the results obtained in the error analysis.

In the literature, few studies have focused on errors made by Arab learners in the use of the English article system. The majority of other studies of Arab learners have in general concentrated on verbal morphology. Those which concentrated on the English article system have led to considerable disagreement as some of these studies (e.g., El-Sayed, 1982 and Crompton, 2011) suggested that interference is the key source of errors in the use of articles by Arab learners of English, whereas other studies (e.g., Bataineh, 2005 and Al-maloul, 2014) showed that overgeneralization and developmental causes were the crucial causes of errors. Therefore, this study is carried out to ascertain what might cause errors in the uses of the English article system by Libyan learners of English.

Moreover, teaching grammar in general in foreign language classrooms and the English article system in particular has become the main issue of debate amongst linguists and teachers. One side of the debate is in favour of learning grammar implicitly in a meaningful context of natural speech with extensive exposure to the target structures. The other side of the debate supports the use of explicit grammar instructions in a decontextualized manner, which concentrates on the conscious learning of grammatical structures through formal instruction. Several researchers (Ellis, 1994, 2001; Nassaji & Swain, 2000) supported explicit grammar instruction, for the reason that there are some grammatical forms which are difficult to learn even in context and therefore, are better acquired if they are taught using explicit instruction. Word order and determiners (this, that, these, those, a, an, the) can be instances of such challenging grammatical forms (Lynch, 2009).

On account of the debate regarding whether to teach difficult grammatical items to L2 learners or not, the present study adopts two teaching strategies to examine which is preferable for

teaching the English article system to Libyan learners of English in particular and to L2 learners in general.

1.2 Objective of the Study

The present study aims to examine the following:

1. As the English article system has been proven to be difficult to acquire by some second language learners, the present study is an attempt to establish why the acquisition of the English article system is a difficult process for Libyan learners of English. In order to achieve this aim, the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was adopted. The researcher believes that it may assist her to predict learning difficulties, analyse errors and ascertain what role transfer may play in acquiring the English article system by first year Libyan learners of English. This hypothesis assumes that the similarities between two languages may facilitate the process of learning and the differences between them may hinder it. Based on this theory, the differences between English and Arabic with regard to the article system may be problematic and lead Libyan learners to negatively transfer the rules of their mother tongue and apply them into the target language. A collection of texts has been used in order to systematically compare similarities and differences in article uses in both languages. (More details are presented in due course).
2. Some researchers (e.g. Liu et al. 1998, Silva, 2008 and Heydari, 2012) claimed that mother tongue interference might primarily be a main cause of difficulty in learning a second language. The present research is seeking to examine whether interference (i.e. negative transfer) has a role to play in the acquisition of the English article system by

Libyan learners and whether the difficulties encountered in learning the English article system can be attributed to mother tongue interference?

3. The present study examines what errors in the English article uses might be the most frequent and why.
4. A further objective of the present study is to analyse the errors that Libyan learners may make whilst learning the English article system. The errors of Libyan learners are analysed based on Error Analysis (EA), as it shows that, when errors are analysed and classified, additional facts about the process of SLA emerge through implementing learning strategies used by learners to acquire a language. Moreover, it is hoped that this study will assist EFL instructors to become familiar with the most repeated errors made by EFL learners leading them to make more objective choices in adopting appropriate teaching strategies, with the purpose of assisting learners to obtain better learning.
5. One of the reasons that might affect the process of mastering the English article is the teaching strategy that instructors follow in their teaching. With regard to the endless debate in the literature about teaching strategies that assist L2 learners of English to master grammatical rules, the present study may well add a contribution to the literature by showing which teaching strategy should be implemented in Libya to teach the English article system to first year Libyan students at Garyounis University in Benghazi, Libya. In the literature, various opinions are expressed regarding grammar instruction to second language learners. Some advocate formal and systematic attention to isolated linguistic forms through rules, drills and error correction; whilst others reject such techniques and support unconscious natural language exposure similar to

that of children acquiring their mother tongue language. Other opinions state that in order for acquisition to take place, learners should pay attention to linguistic forms and meaning whilst, at the same time, they should be provided with enhanced input techniques in context to assist them to notice the target forms. The researcher adopted two teaching strategies, namely, deductive teaching, (an explicit teaching strategy) and textual enhanced input, (an implicit teaching strategy) with an evaluation of the long term effects. (More details about these teaching strategies, how they are performed and the participants are presented in chapter four).

6. This study seeks to recognize what aspects other than the English article system the students made progress in during and after the instruction. That is, what benefit each group had from the teaching strategy it was taught with? In order to comprehend such benefits, two measurements were used:
 - T-unit in order to measure grammatical development and
 - Type-Token Ratio (TTR) to measure lexical development.

1.3 Research Questions

The study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What role learners' L1 may play in the process of learning L2?
2. What are the types of errors Libyan EFL students may encounter when they use these articles? Why?
3. What article use might be problematic (overused/underused) to acquire and why?

4. Which teaching strategy (explicit deductive teaching or implicit textual enhanced input) can improve Libyan learners' ability regarding article use?
5. What benefits does each group obtain from the teaching strategy that it was taught with? In other words, which teaching strategy assists Libyan learners to gain grammatical and lexical development? This question assists the researcher to gain a wider perspective in relation to linguistic development.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Employing Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, Error Analysis, and two reaching strategies, this study is seeking to identify the following:

1. Use of CAH, as the researcher thought that it would assist her to predict some learning difficulties and determine what role transfer may play in acquiring the English article system by L2 Libyan learners of English.
2. Use of EA, in order to establish and analyse the errors that Libyan university learners may make when learning the English article system.
3. It is hoped that the research will be beneficial to teachers in that it may help them choose the most appropriate teaching strategy (explicit or implicit) and accordingly, enable them to plan their lessons in such a way as to motivate their students, increase their attention to articles positively and meet their needs. Additionally, it is hoped that the present study will investigate the advantages and disadvantages of the teaching strategies involved for learners in order that the ESL instructors are more receptive towards the kinds of learning that their learners favour.

4. It is also hoped that the results drawn from this study will assist future research in the field of methodology.

As previously mentioned, the present study has two levels in respect of its objectives. On the one hand it seeks to understand more facts about the difficulties encountered by intermediate Libyan learners in a classroom setting, in particular in learning the English article system and the challenges experienced, likewise, by L2 learners in general. Conversely, it tests two teaching strategies, (implicit and explicit teaching strategies) to ascertain which is better for teaching the English article system. The second objective, (i.e. testing teaching strategies) refers to some information concerning how English is taught in Libya and offers additional facts about English language teachers in Libya. The following section presents further details.

1.5 Teaching English Language in Libya

In Libya, English is not used as a daily language or in official locations such as schools and universities. Consequently, it is treated as a foreign language. English is taught for three years at preparatory schools where students are aged around twelve. It is an obligatory subject with approximately four classes per week and each lesson lasts forty-five minutes.

In the secondary stages, English is taught in a variety of time scales in accordance with the students' major. At this stage, which takes three years, students are streamed into Sciences, Arts or Economics, according to the discipline in which they want to major. All groups are taught the same subjects on the curriculum, each with a different emphasis and orientations, dependent on their field of specialization. Class sizes are relatively large and vary between approximately thirty to forty students per class. This stage prepares students who intend to join

English departments at university. At university, students are selected following a placement test and as a rule 200 to 300 students are chosen each year.

1.5.1 Teachers of English in Libya

- Teaching English in the preparatory and secondary stages is performed mainly by Libyan teachers who gained their academic qualification (four years) in Libya. At university, some teachers come from Arab countries such as Iraq and Egypt whilst others are Libyan teachers who obtained their PhD degrees from countries such as United States and the United Kingdom.

1.5.2 Some Obstructions and Contextual Issues

- The students' exposure to English and the chance to use it for communication purposes is very limited due to the fact that their training took place away from an English environment. Moreover, they learn English only in the classroom and have no access to films or the internet.
- The communicative approach and focus on form teaching strategies have recently been introduced in Libya and many teachers have little information on how to use them.
- A number of schools suffer from a lack of teaching equipment such as laboratories and tape-recorders.
- Students lack the opportunity to interact inside the classroom due to two factors: lack of time and overcrowded classes.
- Students have limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom and when they join together in conversation, they speak Arabic (their first language).

1.6 The Organization of the Study

The present study is organized as follows.

Chapter one is an introduction to the study which includes the background, a statement of the problem, research questions, and the objectives, significance and an outline of the study .

Chapter two presents a review of the literature in three parts: The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, Error Analysis and two teaching strategies, specifically, deductive teaching and textual enhanced input. In accordance with the comparisons being made in the present study between the English and Arabic article systems to predict learning difficulties, this chapter commences with a discussion on the subject of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. The literature viewpoint about this hypothesis and the criticisms that it encountered are presented. The criticism of CAH led to the emersion of Error Analysis. As Libyan learners may make errors whilst learning the English article system, analysis is required, thus, the second part presents details on the subject of Error Analysis offering definitions of errors, the role that errors play in learning, classification of errors, interlingual vs. intralingual errors, and procedures of errors.

As both CAH and EA were criticised and abandoned, the present study attempts to establish the reasons behind such criticisms.

Two teaching strategies DT and TEI were adopted to teach the English article system to first year Libyan students at Garyounis University in Benghazi, Libya. Hence, various opinions with regard to these teaching strategies are provided in the third part of this chapter.

Chapter three consists of three sections. The first section presents definitions in the literature regarding *definiteness*, *uniqueness* and *existentiality*, *familiarity*, *identifiability* and

locatability, specificity and genericity. They are provided in order to give readers more information about the English article system and to show them the different opinions in terms of how they are viewed. Most of the above definitions are mentioned in this study, thus, making it easier for readers to recognize what such terms mean. The second section is a comparison between English and Arabic with regard to the article systems in both languages. The aim of the comparison is to discover what these languages have and do not have in common. The difference in the use of English and Arabic may cause difficulties and result in errors. Consequently, by adopting CAH, a variety of potential learning problems may be predicted. Moreover, this part attempts to predict which article use might be problematic (misused frequently) for Libyan students to acquire by using a parallel corpus.

Chapter four presents the methodology of the study, (description of the experimental design of this study, the subjects of the study, the setting in which the study was conducted and the instrument). It shows the general design of the study which involved three tests, (a pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2), three teaching strategies: (deductive teaching DT, textual enhanced input TEI and a control group CG), and three groups: two experimental groups (DT and TEI) and a control group (CG).

The purpose was to determine how much the three groups improved in their use of the targeted grammatical items (the article system) and also to recognize what each group has learnt other than the article system acquired through the teaching strategy taught to it. It is necessary to consider the bigger picture concerning the effectiveness of teaching strategies in other aspects than the English article system. In order to do this, two forms of measurements were used to determine grammatical development and the lexical diversity of the students'

writings. The T-unit was used to measure the grammatical development and type-token ratio (TTR) was used to measure how many different words are used in a text. (More details about these two measurements are presented in chapter 6).

Chapter five reports the findings of data analysis from different sides. The findings of two types of tasks used in the present study are given: a multiple choice task and a composition task. A comparison between both tasks is likewise presented, in order to establish which task the students perform better at.

The analyses of the multiple choice task are organized as follows: descriptive statistics, analyses of pre-test performances, analyses of post-test 1 and post-test 2 using repeated measures ANOVA and a follow up t-test. Similar procedures were performed for the composition task. This task allows for the analysis and classification of article errors made by Libyan learners.

Moreover, this chapter reveals the benefits each group obtained from the teaching strategy that it was taught with. This procedure was used in order to identify the role of explicit/implicit instruction on improving learner's grammar and writing.

Chapter six sheds light on the following: a comparison of the results of chapter five with what was predicted to take place in chapter three through Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). Additional facts are presented about the causes of errors, the students' scores, the effectiveness of explicit and implicit instruction strategies in using the English article appropriately and gaining grammatical and lexical development, pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research and conclusion.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of three areas: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH); error analysis (EA); and two methodologies regarding second language teaching, namely deductive teaching and textual enhanced input. The first section discusses the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) in terms of its strong and weak versions. This study is seeking to undertake a contrastive analysis of the article system in English and Arabic, in terms of their forms and uses. The analysis is undertaken in order to discover the similarities and differences between them. Based on the differences between the two languages, the study will determine if the difficulties and errors that L2 learners may make can be predicted. A comparative L1/L2 approach is potentially useful in the present study, as it could show the difficulties that Libyan learners may face when learning the English article system.

The second section discusses EA, presenting a theoretical framework of the definition of errors, the role of errors in language learning, classifications and procedures of errors. This hypothesis is implemented in this study, as errors that Libyan learners of English may make when learning the English article system could assist the researcher and future studies to reveal what kinds of errors L2 learners may make and why, as well as to help learners overcome their learning problems.

Finally, two teaching approaches (DT, TEI) are addressed in this chapter as they were used to teach the English article system to Libyan learners of English who were studied in this research. The researcher taught a course regarding the English article system at Garyounis University in Libya for two and a half months. Three groups of participants were taught using

different teaching strategies. A deductive teaching strategy was utilized for the DT group, the TEI group was taught by means of an input enhancement teaching strategy, and CG was the control group, which was exposed to language during conversations. The study considered if the deductive or textual enhanced input teaching strategy is the most effective strategy in teaching the article system to Libyan learners of English. The outcome may assist Libyan teachers to understand how to teach definite and indefinite articles appropriately, with the result that learners use the English article as well as L1 speakers.

The literature regarding CAH, EA, deductive and input enhancement teaching strategies has been reviewed to determine the foundational knowledge for the research.

2.1 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is one of the pioneering efforts into second language acquisition (SLA) research. It was first produced by Charles Fries (1945, cited in Brown, 2000) and then developed by Lado (1957) and has been defined by a number of linguists. For example, Lado defined CA as:

A comparison between two languages, namely, the learner's first language L1 and the second language L2 in terms of ease and difficulty where similarities and differences between L1 and L2 affect the nature of acquisition. That is, learning is easy when there are similarities in the structures of languages. Conversely, when the structures differ, difficulties arise in learning and result in errors (1957, p.9)

Another definition was provided by Brown (2000, p. 207) who defined CA as “studies of contrast between the native language and the target language which specifically examines the effect of native on target language.”

Lado claimed that the difficulty with L2 acquisition could be predicted through the differences between L1 and L2. Moreover, CA is related to behaviourism which theorizes that language development is habit formation and supposes that second language learners commence second

language learning with habits formed in L1 and which interfere with L2 (Lightbown and Spada, 2006, p. 34). In addition, Skinner (1957) supported this view. He claimed that language learning entails habit formation. Habits are developed when learners react to stimuli in the environment and their replies are reinforced so that they are remembered. All behaviour (such as the behaviour found in the process of language acquisition) could be described in terms of habits. According to this thesis, learning takes place when learners have a chance to practise and make the correct response to a given stimuli. Students imitate representations of correct language (stimuli). The reinforcement they receive is positive when the representations are correct and negative when the representations are incorrect.

Moreover, with regards to CAH, it is claimed that difficulties which arise whilst learning L2 can be mainly due to mother tongue interference. This assumption relates to transfer of native habits into the target language. Two types of transfer referred to by CAH are presented below.

2.2 Transfer (L1 Interference) in Second Language Acquisition

Although behaviourism and CAH define transfer in terms of habit formation, transfer is presented differently by a number of linguists. For example, Universal Grammar (UG), which was developed by Chomsky (1965), posited innate constraints on transfer. Learners use appropriate L2 because they are guided by UG and they use appropriate L2 parameter values through the input. However, learners' use of inappropriate parameter values is due to the L2 parameter values which are already fixed in the learners' first language. Thus, when the target parameter values are similar to those of L1, the input confirms them easily. Likewise; when the target parameter values differ from those in L1, the learners reset them and incorrectly transfer their L1 parameters.

Odlin (1989, p.27) defined transfer as “the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the TL [target language] and any other language that has been previously acquired.” The transfer may facilitate the process of learning through similarities between languages; and these similarities may assist the easy mastering of another language, whereas differences between two languages may cause complications resulting in errors. Brown (2007, p. 117), in the same way as Odlin, defined transfer as “the interaction of previously acquired linguistic and/or conceptual knowledge with the present learning event to facilitate a new language learning.”

For example, Arab learners of English may produce a sentence such as (My father doctor) without the production of the auxiliary verb *be* and the indefinite article *a*. This could be due to the influence of their mother tongue as the linguistic system in Arabic has neither the auxiliary verbs *To Be* nor an indefinite article. Such an influence may lead learners to transfer the rules of their first language negatively and employ them in L2.

Moreover, transfer can be divided into two poles: negative transfer and positive transfer. Negative transfer refers to the use of previous linguistic knowledge in producing a second language which results in undesirable forms. It occurs when the L1 form used in L2 production is not part of the L2 norm, and the resultant utterance is erroneous. This kind of transfer (interference) hinders learning and performing appropriate target language forms. Positive transfer, by contrast, takes place when a native form is used in the production of a second language. It is part of the L2 norm and hence, facilitates learning process.

According to a number of researchers (e.g. Corder, 1981; Diab, 1997; James, 1998; Lakkis & Malak, 2000 and Krashen, 2002), negative transfer of learners’ first language can be one of the major causes of errors. For instance, Corder stated that:

One explanation of second of second language errors is that the learner is carrying over the habits of his mother tongue into the second language. This is called interference and the implication of this term can only be that his mother tongue habits prevent him in some way from acquiring the habits of the second language (Corder, 1981, p.24).

Additionally, the results of a number of studies (e.g. Corder 1981; Rintell, 1984; Kellerman 1983; Odlin, 1989; Hall, 1990; Noor, 1996; Scott, 1997; Lakkis & Malak, 2000; Cook, 2001; Upton, 2001; Sarko, 2009; Ionin & Montrul, 2010) reveal that transfer has a role in L2 acquisition. These studies show that L1 has an impact (either positive or negative) on L2 in the fields of phonology, morphology and semantics. When L2 learners transfer L1 properties which are different from L2, learning problems may arise. For instance, the result of Sarko's study (2009), which was conducted on Arabic and French learners of English, reveals that both Arabic and French learners use the definite article in a similar manner to English native speakers. Their transfer of L1 patterns to L2 was positive, the reason being that both Arabic and French languages have similarities with English in the use of article systems. Therefore, they may transfer grammatical patterns from their L1 to L2 and this transfer result is positive when there are similarities between the two languages and negative when there are differences. Hence, such studies claim that transfer plays a significant role in the process of acquisition.

There are, however, controversial views on the subject of the role of transfer in L2 acquisition. Theories such as Full Access (without transfer) Hypothesis argue that L1 grammar is not the basis for the acquisition of L2, thus, there is not an L1 transfer in L2 acquisition. The results of a number of studies (e.g. Dulay & Burt, 1972; Kasper, 1992; Ellis, 1994; Cao, 2001; Sabourin, 2003) support this view. For example, Dulay and Burt claimed that L1 has no impact on L2 acquisition as the latter is facilitated by UG principles. They argue that the errors made by L2

learners are developmental errors, (within the target language) rather than interlingual errors, (interference from learners' native language).

Thus, it can be summarised that empirical research has presented different opinions regarding the role of L1 on L2 learners. Some studies claim that L1 has an impact (positive or negative) on L2 and the differences between the two languages may lead to learning difficulties. Other studies claim that differences between two languages do not necessarily result in learning problems and that difficulties which arise are not always predicted by CAH. On account of these varied opinions, the significance of CAH has been intensely debated recently, and from that two differentiated versions of CA, (the strong and weak versions) emerged. The following section presents more details.

2.3 Strong and Weak Versions of Contrastive Analysis

2.3.1 The Strong Version (Priori/Predictive)

This version claims that: (a) interference from the learner's native language is the key obstacle to second language learning, (b) the greater the difference between the first language and the target language, the greater the difficulties, (c) these difficulties can be predicted with the aid of a systematic analysis, (d) the result of contrastive analysis can be used as a reliable basis for the preparation of teaching materials, course planning and the development of classroom techniques. It claims that the difficulties that learners face are reflections of their native language and that L2 learners transfer their L1 rules and implement them into L2. Hence, CA may allow researchers to predict and identify some errors made by L2 learners. Lado (1957, p.9) claimed that "we can predict and describe the patterns that will cause difficulty in learning a language."

Odlin, (1989) declared that, the strength of the strong version of CAH is that, it has validity as a device for predicting some of the errors a second language learner may bring out. Consequently, it may present a promising source for the investigation of common properties of the mind and seems to be a uniquely suitable methodology for further study of the fundamental processes of transfer and interference in learning tasks.

2.3.2 The Weak Version (Posteriori/Explanatory)

Due to the drawbacks of the ‘strong version’ of CAH, a ‘weak version’ that is known today as cross-linguistic influence (CLI) emerged. The distinction between the strong and the weak versions of CAH is the move from the predictive power of learning difficulty (strong version) to the explanatory power of the observed errors (weak version). With the strong version, the prediction of errors is based upon a priori CA of L1 and L2; that is, predicting errors before they occur. By contrast, the weak version of CAH uses the errors that learners make and explains their occurrence by drawing attention to the similarities and differences between L1 and L2. The weak version suggests that the linguistic difficulties can be explained as a posteriori by instructors and linguists. When language and errors appear, teachers can utilize their knowledge of the target language and native language to understand the sources of error.

Moreover, the weak version, (cross-linguistic influence) suggests that, since the role of the learner’s L1 in acquiring the L2 cannot be denied, it has to be taken into account. More recent research, especially from the Arabic world, regarding CAH and the role of L1 in acquiring L2 was conducted. A look at some recent views about the influence of L1 on L2 learners should be considered. The following section provides more details.

2.4. Recent Literature Review from Arabic World Regarding L1 Influence on L2 Acquisition

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on L2 acquisition of grammar in general and on the English article system in particular. A number of studies, (e.g. Al-aswad, 2002; Abisamra, 2003; Karim 2003; Al-zahrani, 2008; Al-sulmi, 2010; Diab, 2010; Crompton, 2011; Al-haysony, 2012; Al-ridha, 2012; Baloch, 2013; Mourssi, 2013, 2014; Sawalmeh, 2013; and Abu-Rabia and Sammour, 2013) have provided evidence of first language influence on L2 Arab learners of English. For instance, Crompton (2011) conducted a study on advanced L1 Arabic learners of English, in order to identify and classify the types of errors and to determine the role of transfer in the students' writings.

The study analysed a large corpus of argumentative essays written by first and second year Arab students (aged 18-20) at the American University of Sharjah. The findings revealed that the most common error involved in his study was the misuse of the definite article for generic reference. Crompton stated that such an error is caused mainly by L1 transfer (an interlingual error), rather than an intralingual developmental error (within L2). His findings showed that the misuse of the definite article occurred most frequently in Ø contexts, especially in the use with (generic non count nouns) such as * *some of us consider the money as the force which controls our lives*. According to Crompton such an error could be generally due to L1 influence because the use of such a sentence would be impossible in Arabic without the use of the definite article. In line with Crompton, the study of Ridha (2012) examined English writing samples of 80 L2 Arab learners of English. The results showed that most of the students' errors were due to L1 transfer.

Ridha stated that errors such as the omission or addition of the articles is used in a way that proves the direct transfer of L1 rules to L2 specifically in the cases where names of countries or cities were mentioned. The data show that learners select the improper grammatical items if equivalents are not used in their mother tongue; delete grammatical items if equivalents are not required in their mother tongue, add them if equivalents are required in their mother tongue and use the proper grammatical items providing equivalents are used in their mother tongue.

Al-haysony (2012) conducted a case study on 100 Saudi female undergraduates who studied English as a major. The study was on the types of errors made by the students when using the English articles and was based on the surface structure taxonomies that are used in classifying the errors. She collected data by asking her students to write life-related descriptive topics. Based on (SST) analysis, the results showed that the subjects make many omission errors and few substitutions errors, in terms of omission error type, the omission of 'a' is the most frequent error type, while the omission of 'an' is the least frequent one. Additionally, her study concludes that the native language interference that is Arabic plays a significant role in the occurrence of these errors in addition to the strategies of instruction when teaching the English errors. Consequently, she stresses that teachers should be aware of the differences between L1 and L2 while teaching the English articles.

In addition, Mourssi's study (2014) which lasted four months was conducted on 74 Arab Learners of English. It investigated the cross linguistic influence of L1 in learning L2 linguistic items including the English article system and 222 written texts produced by students from an Omani High School were analysed. The subjects were divided into two groups. Each group consisted of 37 Arab Learners of English. Their language level ranged from pre-intermediate to intermediate. The subjects were all Arabic speakers and had been

learning English as a foreign language for eight years. The results showed that the subjects had problems with the use of articles in English and attributed that to their L1 which has different rules of article use than that of English. Mourssi believed that learners apply some rules from L1 on their performance in L2. According to him, the evidence that the majority of errors produced by learners in his study were caused by the native language is that there are a lot of errors concerning the verb *to be*, tenses, prepositions and the article system, which are incorrect in English, and hence, a translation in Arabic would be correct. Moreover, to ensure that the L1 has a strong role in acquiring L2, he argued that even in the students' writings, they preferred to translate their thought in English having in mind that it might be an accepted form and can be a target-like form. In line with Mourssi, Sawalmeh (2013, p. 14) stated that:

Most of the students' errors can be due to L1 transfer. The overt influences of Arabic on the students' writing of English indicate that language teachers need to take careful stock of the transfer and interference of the students' mother tongue in their spoken or written production. Therefore, one way to highlight the influences of the mother tongues on the students' learning of English is to collect these errors and ask the students to analyse them and if they could to correct them.

In addition, the study of Al-zahrani (2011) was conducted on adult Arab learners of English. The study contained three levels of participants (beginners, low intermediate and upper intermediate) to test the role of L1 transfer in the acquisition of the English article system by using a forced-choice elicitation task. In terms of positive transfer, the results revealed that L1 has a strong influence on upper intermediate and low intermediate levels but not on beginners. Both intermediate groups produced correct L2 uses that were similar to their equivalent in the learners' L1. He argued that upper intermediate and low intermediate levels transferred rules of L1 and applied them into L2. With regard to the beginner-level group, many errors were made. He attributed the errors of beginners as being that they do not have sufficient knowledge

of vocabulary that led them to misuse the article and consequently errors were made. According to him, although the beginner-level group did not make article choices as accurate as the intermediate groups, their errors may be due to their inability to handle the experiment task. Generally, the results indicated that the similarities between the article systems in Arabic and English do aid the acquisition of L2 articles and that the differences may impede acquisition, as they prevent the learner from noticing relevant properties of L2 input. He provided evidence of L1 influence by arguing that the participants produced some errors that were almost limited to items where the target NPs were followed by an *of*-phrase and used English articles appropriately in other contexts. According to him, this is further evidence that Arabic-speaking learners of English are aided in L2 acquisition of English articles by the presence of articles in their L1.

Another study was undertaken by Tahaineh (2010). The findings of his study supported previous research studies which confirmed that the majority of errors made by the EFL Arab learners are because of the impact of the learners' first language, which was found to play an outstanding role. The results of his study showed that 58% were interlingual errors and 42% were intralingual errors.

It is worth mentioning that although the above studies attributed learners' errors mainly to L1 influence, they pointed out that there might be other factors, such as wrong learning strategies and inadequate teaching methods, which may account for students' acquisition problems with the English articles. For instance, Al-haysony (2012, p. 55) stated that:

Further, results showed that Arabic interference was not the only source of errors, but that English was a source of many errors as well. Findings showed that 57% of the errors were interlingual ones, indicating the influence of the native language. Thus, interlingual errors are the most commonly occurring types. On the other hand, intralingual errors represented 42.56% of article errors. This result also indicates that L1 interference strongly influences the process of second language acquisition of the articles, having a negative effect on the learning

process. Teachers and instructors should therefore point out more clearly the differences between L1 and L2 in the use of articles.

Moreover, Al-haysony (2012, p. 64) attributed the difficulty in acquiring the English article system to both Arabic and English and considered them sources of errors for Arab learners of English. He stated that:

The results revealed that interference is not the only source of errors made by Saudi female EFL students. In fact, English was the source of many errors as well. Specifically, the results show that L1 interference strongly influences the process of second language acquisition of articles. The students relied heavily on transfer to judge the appropriate usage of articles.

Likewise, Al-maloul (2014) claimed that interference from the mother tongue is not the only source of errors adult L2 learners make. Several errors made by L2 learners can be explained due to interference from the target language. In addition to these two major sources of errors, other factors such as teaching and testing techniques should also be evaluated as the causes of errors in L2 learning.

Generally, it can be noticed that the above mentioned studies were in favour of CAH. They stated that the similarities between English and Arabic article systems may facilitate acquiring the rules and differences between the two languages may confuse the learners and cause errors in most uses. In addition, these studies argue that L1 has a strong effect in acquiring L2.

It is worth mentioning that the role of the L1 in foreign language learning has received significant attention from numerous researchers not only from the Arabic world but also from the West. The views of some western scholars differ from those from the Arabic world. Some studies (e.g. Ellis, 1994; Izumi and Isahara, 2004; Mitchell and Myles, 2004; Luk and Shirai, 2009; Hinarejos, 2010; Morales, 2011, Yu, 2011) state that L1 may have a role in acquiring L2 and this role is very minimal. For example, Yu (2011, p. 444) stated that “now it is clear that

the learner's L1 is an important determinant of SLA, but it is not the only determinant, and may not be the most important". In line with Yu, Scheidnes et.al (2009) stated that "our results suggest that L2 learners react like other atypical L1 learners when faced with complex structures. If L1 transfer played a role, it was so minimal that it remained undetected by our task."

What makes the views of western scholars differ from those from Arabic world? In fact, such a discrepancy can be due to a number of reasons. First, Arabic learners of English make a lot of interference errors because of the teaching methods they are taught. That is, some L2 instructors use the learners' native language to compare L2 rules with L1 rules in classes and use teaching methods such as the translation method to teach grammatical items. Such methods may affect learners and result in them being influenced by their L1. Second, the researchers of the above mentioned studies looked only at data from Arabic speakers of English. That is, their studies contained only learners from the same L1 background (i.e. Arabic) and did not include learners from other L1 backgrounds such as Spanish or German. Actually, researchers who looked at data from different L1 backgrounds found that sometimes learners make errors in identical structures (they make the same errors). The above mentioned studies, which were conducted on Arab learners of English, make it difficult to determine whether Arab learners' errors are due to interference or not.

In general, it can be concluded that in the literature, the role of L1 influence is a matter of degree between the West and Arabic world. In the West, there is a belief that L1 has a negligible influence in learning L2, whereas in the Arabic world researchers think that L1 has a larger influence, although it is not as large as previously thought.

2.5 Criticism of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The CAH has been criticized by a number of researchers such as James (1985), Klein (1986), McLaughlin (1987), Abbas (1995), Johnson (2001), Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) and Khansir (2012). The main weakness of the strong version of CAH is that of accuracy of prediction: firstly, over-prediction in which the prediction of L2 learning problems does not always occur; secondly, under-prediction in which learning problems are not predicted.

In addition, one of the criticisms levelled at CAH is that its assumption that whatever is similar to the learners' first language is easy, or whatever is different is difficult, has proved to be erroneous. Whitman and Jackson's (1972) study highlighted the unpredictability. They tested the prediction of relative difficulty in a study involving 2,500 L2 learners of English. Their study showed that what was expected to be easy to learn was difficult and what was difficult was easy. Hence, the power of predictability of CAH is not always accurate. The errors that may be predicted to occur by L2 learners do not always happen. Moreover, CAH claims that difficulties in language learning are due to the differences between two languages and that similarities facilitate learning and the production of correct performance. However, Corder (1973) believed that there is not necessarily a relationship between difference and difficulty. He argued that the challenges in learning a second language did not essentially result from the linguistic differences between the learner's first language and second language. For example, learners might concentrate on aspects they perceive as complicated to learn, in order to avoid making mistakes, but may make mistakes in areas where they do not perceive much difficulty will arise.

Another criticism of CAH is that errors are not only made through interference from L1 (Rabab'ah, 2005 and Brown, 2000), and that transferring first language habits is not the

only reason for all errors an L2 learner may make in L2. CAH's flaws and its supposed ability to predict errors have been challenged by a number of studies (e.g. Whitman and Jackson, 1972; Dulay and Burt, 1974; and Abbas, 1995). These studies demonstrated that many errors predicted to cause learning problems for students did not take place. Moreover, these studies revealed that the influence of L1 on learners was much less than that of CAH.

A further criticism of CAH is indicated by the results of studies which show that the difficulty in learning an L2 does not always result in errors; however, it may result in avoidance. Schachter's study (1974, cited in Liao & Fukuya, 2004), demonstrated that instead of making errors, Japanese learners of English avoid producing grammatical elements.

2.6 Use of Contrastive Analysis in Present Research

Despite the criticism of CAH and the debate with regards to the role it may play in SLA, linguists such as Norrish (1983), James (1998), Abbas (1995), and Johnson (2008) argued that CAH may be useful in teaching and can be utilised to discover facts about learning a second language. Moreover, although it was produced in the 1940s, it is now used in some studies in order to discover whether it can help researchers in predicting some errors, understanding L2 learners' difficulties when learning target language forms and with recognizing the role of L1 in acquiring L2 grammatical items. A contrastive analysis of English and Arabic may reveal to the analyst all the dissimilarities between the two languages. Furthermore, most of the criticism of CAH was on the part of predictability power and interference from L1.

For these reasons, this study has adopted CAH, in order to (1) determine whether it can assist the researcher in predicting learning difficulties, (2) analyse errors and (3) because there are different opinions between researchers from the Arabic world and those from the West

regarding the effect of L1 in the acquisition of grammatical items, thus, this study tests what role L1 may play when L2 Libyan learners of English acquire the English article system.

The researcher used a collection of English and Arabic authentic texts containing the article system in order to compare similarities and differences between these two languages where the differences could assist in predicting learning difficulties. More details about the corpus are provided later.

Since this study analyses the errors that Libyan learners make in learning the English article system, an overview of error analysis, definition and classifications of errors is required.

2.7 Error Analysis

When the CAH failed to account for some of the learner's errors, EA emerged as an alternative. Corder (1967), Gass and Selinker (1994) and Johnson (2001) believed that EA is of great significance since it concerns the learner's developing language. They suggested that when researchers classify learners' errors, they learn more about the process of SLA by inferring learning strategies which learners use to acquire a language. EA is a technique used to identify, classify and systematically interpret the learners' deviant forms of the target language (TL). The essential task of error analysis is to explain how learning takes place by investigating the learner's output and this includes learners' correct and incorrect utterances. In addition, Corder (1974, p.27) stated that EA has two branches: the theoretical and the applied. The former investigates the process of language learning, as well as the strategies in terms of similarities with first language acquisition. The latter aims at organizing remedial courses with suitable materials and teaching methods based on the results of the theoretical approach.

As error analysis studies and analyses learners' errors, a look at what an error means and its role in SLA is required.

2.7.1 Definitions of an Error

The term error has been defined by various linguists and researchers. For example, a classic definition comes from Corder (1973, p.295) who regarded errors as 'breaches of code'. This means that they are the marks of an imperfect knowledge of the code because learners have not yet mastered the formation of the TL rules. Brown (1994, p.205) considers an error to be "a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner." In addition, Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.184), stated that an error is "the use of a linguistic item in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning."

It can be concluded from the above definitions that, in traditional second language teaching situation errors are seen as an incorrect or inappropriate use of language patterns which are deviant from the norms produced by a native speaker. In accordance with this belief, many second language teachers basically correct individual errors as they take place, with little attempt to seek the reasons for the errors. At present, however, with the development of linguistics and applied linguistics, second language teachers' attitudes toward errors have changed to a very great extent. Instead of viewing errors as problems to be solved or eradicated, most of today's second language teachers tend to consider errors as proof of the learners' levels in their target language (TL) development, which can present information that can be used to order items for teaching or to plan remedial lessons (Ellis, 1997).

2.7.2 The Role of Errors in Second Language Acquisition

As previously mentioned, in the 1960s the behaviourist theory and CAH maintained that errors were undesirable and should be avoided, however, this opinion changed when errors were considered to be normal and unavoidable. Corder (1967); Dulay et al. (1982); Lightbown and Pienemann (1993); Gass and Selinker (1994); Ellis (1997) and James (1998) believed that errors are considered to be an unavoidable part of language learning, which can reveal learners' underlying knowledge of the TL and provide evidence of how a learner uses a language.

Ellis (1997, p.15) suggested that errors are significant for several reasons. "First, they are a conspicuous feature of learner language, raising the important question of 'Why do learners make errors?'. Second, it is useful for teachers to know what errors learners make. Third paradoxically, it is possible that making errors may actually help learners to learn when they self-correct the errors they make."

As errors that L2 learners make may be useful and indicate facts about second language learners, many researchers consider analysing errors to be a vital activity that assists in showing the reasons for learning difficulties as it reveals sources and causes of errors. EA is a crucial factor for understanding how second language learners use TL. Thus, many researchers confirm the importance of EA in the literature. Schachter (1974), for example, outlined two EA goals: presenting the difficulties which learners face which may cause errors in learners' production, and repeating specific kinds of errors which are evidence of their relative difficulty in learning. In other words, the frequency (or repetition) of errors in learning grammatical elements is a sign of the challenges of these elements for learners. Dulay et al. (1982, p.138) stated that EA highlights the multiple origins of errors, in providing evidence that not all

second language learners' errors are due to their first language. On the contrary, there are other kinds of errors such as developmental errors (which are explained later); also, EA indicates which particular difficulties learners may face in producing TL, thereby affecting the ability of learners to communicate effectively.

According to Ringbom, the importance of error analysis is that: "errors analysis is not sufficient on its own, but it may yield a better understanding of what is going on in the learner's mind, especially if it is combined with other types of investigation, such as frequency counts, contrastive analysis" (1987, p.71).

2.7.3 Errors and Mistakes

Chomsky (1965) distinguished between two types of errors: competence errors, and performance errors. Competence errors are systematic and result from a lack of knowledge of the language rules. Performance errors are not systematic and result from factors such as fatigue. According to Corder (1967), Ellis (1997), and Brown (2000) mistakes are performance errors which result from slips of the tongue when learners know the grammatical rules but fail to use them correctly. Norrish (1987, p.7) referred to errors as "systematic deviation that learners make while developing knowledge of the second language rule system". He emphasized that errors are more crucial than mistakes as they show evidence of the learners' knowledge and are relevant and vital in language acquisition. He further argued that native speakers make mistakes not errors, whereas L2 learners make both errors and mistakes.

2.7.4 Classification of Errors

Errors are classified by some researchers in the literature. For instance, Corder (1973, p.277) classified errors into four categories: omission, addition, misformation, and misordering errors.

Omission errors refer to non-occurrence of necessary structures; that is, the absence of an item that should appear in a well-formed sentence.

- 1) He in the kitchen.
- 2) She lives in big house.

The above examples illustrate that learners omitted the auxiliary verb *is* from sentence 1 and the indefinite article *a* from sentence 2. Thus, they are ill-formed sentences.

Thomas (1989) conducted a study on the use of the English article system. He tested participants with different L1 backgrounds. They were divided into two groups. The native language of the participants in group 1 contained articles (e.g. German and Spanish), whilst the language of the group 2 participants lacked articles (Korean and Japanese). The results revealed that learners whose L1 lack articles tended to omit the English articles. Thomas argued that the reason for this behaviour can be attributed to the influence of their L1.

Addition errors refer to the appearance of grammatical elements that should not appear. One kind of addition error is that of double marking errors which refer to “using the same feature of two elements” (Dulay et al., 1982, p. 156).

- 3) This the car is old.

Most Arab learners of English tend to make the type of error highlighted in sentence 3 because of the influence of their L1; for example, when an Arabic sentence contains a demonstrative

pronoun such as *this, that, these, those* the noun that follows may start with the definite article. For this reason, some learners may transfer this rule and implement it into an English sentence.

Misformation errors refer to the supplement of the wrong morpheme; that is, the use of the wrong form of grammatical element. An example comes from the wrong use of the singular form of the demonstrative before a plural noun (see sentence 4).

4) That books are mine.

Misordering errors refer to the wrong position of morphemes in a sentence (see sentence 5).

5) Bought Mary a book.

Moreover, Brown (2000) classified errors in terms of memory as either global, (these which cannot be understood) or local (those which can be understood). Global errors lead to the disintegration of the structures of a sentence, which, therefore, become difficult to understand and process.

6) The policeman was in this corner whistle

Thus, sentence 6 is not understood as its structure is wrong. By contrast, local errors can be made in a small part of a sentence such as the wrong use of a verb, but the error does not affect the meaning of the sentence (see sentence 7).

7) I hungry very much

In another approach as regards the classification of errors, Dulay et al. (1982, p.165), Richards (1974) and Kaweera (2013) divided errors in terms of intralingual errors, (they are also called

developmental errors) and interlingual errors, (which result from transferring L1 rules into L2). These two types of errors belong to the category known as interlanguage.

Selinker (1972, p.106) defined interlanguage as “a systematic knowledge of an L2 which is independent of the learner’s first language and the TL.” It is a system which is neither of the native language nor of the TL, but falls between them and is based upon the learner’s attempt to produce TL structures. Similarly, Brown (1994, p.215) defined interlanguage as “the separateness of a second language learners’ system, a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and the target languages.” Errors may occur; the causes of which are either that of transferring patterns of L1, (also known as interlingual transfer or interference) or extending patterns within the TL such as over-generalization of one rule over another, (also known as intralingual errors).

According to Richards, intralingual errors are:

Items produced by the learner which reflect not the structures of the mother tongue, but generalizations based on partial exposure to the target language. The learner in this case, tries to derive the rules behind the data to which he/she has been exposed, and may develop hypotheses that correspond neither to the mother tongue nor to the target language (1974, p. 6).

To clarify, Richards means that the errors result as an outcome of the development of interlanguage by the learners; thus, all L2 learners may make such errors regardless of their L1. He believed that these types of errors should be called developmental errors due to similarities discovered in errors produced by children when they are acquiring TL as their first language.

In addition, Lo Coco (1975, p.99) stated that “intralingual errors occur when L1 does not have a rule which L2 has, and the learner applies an L2 rule (i.e. over-generalize), resulting in an

error.” In Lo Coco’s opinion, the absence of an equivalent L1 rule may lead to errors being made in learning. An example comes from learners whose L1 lacks, or does not have, certain grammatical rules, (e.g. Chinese and Japanese languages have no article system) where learners may over-generalize a rule in L2 as they have not yet mastered the grammatical rule.

Moreover, Krashen (1982, p.171) believed that intralingual errors “reflect the mental mechanisms underlying the learner’s general language development which usually coincides with the type of strategies employed by children learning the target language as their first language”. Thus, he argued that intralingual errors may result from applying the wrong hypotheses to L2 because of insufficient exposure to it. Over-generalization errors are examples of intralingual errors. They refer to the deviation of structures on the basis of the learner’s experience of certain TL structures. An example of this can be seen in the addition of the plural sign (s) to nouns such as **childs* and **informations*.

Taylor (1975) suggests that over-generalization errors can be placed in a transfer errors category. Both errors arise due to the same underlying process, (transfer of previous knowledge into a new learning situation); the only difference between these two kinds of errors being of an over-generalization error, the transfer taking place from the same language (TL), whilst in the transfer error condition, the transfer occurs from the learner’s first language L1 into the TL.

What is more, Dulay et al. (1982) emphasized that some errors made by L2 learners are developmental errors. The studies carried out by Huebner (1985), Thomas (1989) and Humphrey (2007) supported this view. Their studies concerned the use of the English article

system by L2 learners of English. The results show that the subjects may over-generalize and over-use one article in preference to another. This can be attributed to the fact that L2 learners may fluctuate between definiteness and specificity in the use of the English article and that learners associate ‘*the*’ with specificity. The following examples illustrate this point:

1- [+ specific, + definite] as in:

I would like to meet the author of the novel someday. I watched an interview with her on TV, I really like her.

2- [- specific, + definite] as in:

I would like to meet the artist of that painting. Unfortunately, I do not know who it is because there is no signature on it.

3- [+ specific, - definite] as in:

I am here for two weeks. I am visiting a friend. Her name is Monica David, and she lives in Newcastle now.

4- [-specific, - definite] as in:

She is staying with a friend, but she did not tell me who that friend is.

The above examples show that the English article system has a generic as well as a specific reference. [+specific] can be used with *the/a* (i.e. definite and indefinite articles), and [- specific] can also be used with *the/a*. Sentences like 2 and 3 may confuse a second language learner of English: with sentence 2, a learner may think that this sentence requires an indefinite article or the zero article because the person who wants to meet the author of the painting does

not know who the artist is, whereas in sentence 3, a learner could think that this sentence requires the definite article because of the name of the person in the sentence. Some studies (e.g. Ionin, 2003; Ionin et al., 2004) concurred with this opinion, believing that the use of specificity and definiteness may cause variations in the use of the article system. It can be noted that a learner may overuse *the* and *a* in the situation [+specific, -definite] such as in sentence 3 and overuse *a* with a non-specific definite such as demonstrated in sentence 2.

In addition, the other type of error is that of the interlingual errors. They are defined by a number of researchers, such as Norrish (1983), James (1998) and Lightbown and Spada (1999) as being errors which can be traced back to the learners' native language. Interlingual errors result from a negative transfer of linguistic patterns of learners' first language and the use of them in TL. Additionally, Brown (1994) stated that, some errors made by L2 learners result primarily from the assumption that some L2 learners believe that the linguistic patterns of L2 are similar to their native language. Such a belief may result in the negative transfer of rules when L1 rules differ from those in L2. The results of studies such as Al-Abed Al-Haq and Smadi (1978); Al-Naimi (1989); Diab (1997); Noor (1996); Aljarf (2000); Abisamra (2003); Mohammed (2004) and Qaid (2011) support Brown's view. These studies show that the majority of errors that L2 learners in general and Arab learners in particular, tend to make are interlingual as they can be traced back to their L1.

The transfer of rules from learners' L1 to L2 can lead to errors occurring and, as a result, learning problems arise. For example, an Arab learner may write a sentence such as, *water is necessary for life* in a generic sense. In English, this sentence requires no article in this context as words like *water* cannot be pre-modified by the article *the* when referring to a generic

reference. The reason why Arab learners may make such an error can be due to the influence of their L1, whereby Arabic requires the addition of the definite article *the* in such sentences.

Generally, EA distinguishes between interlingual errors and intralingual ones. As discussed above, interlingual errors result from a negative transfer of the learners' native language; namely from the differences between L1 and L2. Intralingual errors result from incorrect learning (incomplete development) of TL not only from a language transfer; but also from within the language itself (TL).

2.8 Process of Error Analysis

Different error analysis procedures are used by various researchers such as Corder (1987), Gass and Selinker (1994), Hubbard (1996), Ellis (1997) and Brown (2000).

2.8.1 The Data for Error Analysis

According to Corder (1974), EA data can consist of three kinds: spoken data; written data; and both spoken and written data. Written materials can be either spontaneous production (free composition) or controlled production (such as translations).

2.8.2 Recognition and Identification of Errors

In order to identify L2 errors, it is necessary to distinguish between errors and mistakes (Brown, 2000 and Ellis, 2008). As discussed previously, mistakes are slips of the tongue which can be attributed to reasons such as tiredness or carelessness and which can be corrected, whereas errors reflect gaps in the learners' knowledge. Errors occur because learners have not yet mastered the language and cannot detect and correct them.

Ellis (1997) believed that errors and mistakes can be distinguished in two ways: first, the consistency of learners' performance indicates the type of deviation a learner may make. Thus, if deviant linguistic items are produced regularly, it is an indication of a lack of the learner's linguistic competence, and they can be classified as errors. If learners sometimes use the correct form and sometimes apply the wrong one, this is a mistake. The second method is to ask learners to attempt to correct their incorrect statements. If they are unable to correct them, this is an indication of errors; however, if they are able to correct them, this indicates mistakes have been made.

2.8.3 Descriptions of Errors

When errors are identified, they can be described and classified. Ellis (1997) presented two different ways of describing errors. First, errors can be described by classifying them into grammatical categories. Thus, one may gather all the errors which relate to a particular linguistic element (such as the article system) and then identify the kinds of errors which apply to the linguistic element. The second method is to classify errors according to their occurrences. For example, when L2 learners omit a necessary linguistic element in a sentence, such an error can be called an '*omission error*.'

2.8.4 Explanation for Errors

This section explains how and why errors occur. One method is to determine the sources and causes of errors. The sources of errors have been discussed above; include interlingual errors or L1 interference and intralingual errors.

It is clear that EA plays a central role in understanding the process of language acquisition; it indicates the kinds of errors L2 learners may make and provides researchers and teachers with

facts regarding how learners use and think about TL. However, researchers such as Ellis (1994) criticized EA for a variety of reasons. First, it does not provide sufficient evidence as to how learners acquire a language. Second, it is an imperfect research tool as it may fail to offer a complete picture of learner language as it only focuses on the learners' errors. Third, it can examine only what learners' produce and cannot detect what they avoid. This criticism has led researchers to investigate the way in which learners acquire language and the environment of learning. They believe that the way that L2 learners learn and use their L2 knowledge differs from one learner to another.

In spite of such criticism of EA, its role in language learning cannot be denied. When errors are analysed, they can allow researchers to recognize a learners' level of linguistic knowledge. Additionally, EA can assist researchers and teachers to determine why their learners make errors and then plan appropriate remedial lessons. For this reason, the present study adopted EA, as the aim of the researcher was to discover the reasons for such errors and the kinds of errors Libyan learners may make in the process of learning the English article system. The intention has been to find solutions to help learners overcome their learning problems in the acquisition of the English article system and also to assist instructors to understand the linguistic difficulties that their students may encounter.

Moreover, responding to the criticism that EA is concerned only with learners' output has resulted in many researchers shedding light on learners' input and how adopting a certain teaching strategy may assist in mastering linguistic elements. It is believed that insufficient exposure to certain grammatical elements is one of the learning problems. For example, a teaching strategy which L2 teachers may adopt for teaching a particular linguistic feature may either facilitate or obstruct the student's learning. Some strategies support explicit teaching

(e.g. deductive teaching) whereas others support implicit teaching (such as textual enhanced input teaching strategy) through exposure to language whereby learners focus on both meaning and form. Hence, an examination of the literature concerning the treatment of grammar over time and the effects of teaching strategies follows below.¹

2.9 Theoretical Grounds of Grammar Instruction

The role that grammar may play in SLA has been a matter of debate along the history of language teaching. Generally, some opinions have been raised; some believe that grammar should play a central attention in language teaching and others believe that grammar should not be taught at all. The first opinion is applied in Grammar Translation Method and Cognitive Code Learning (also known as cognitive approach), whereas the other opinion is reflected in Natural Approach and strong version of Communicative Language Teaching. The other methods (e.g. Direct Method and Audio lingual Method) take place somewhere in between. However, according to Richards and Renandya (2002), grammar teaching has recently returned to its correct place in language teaching.

More recently, grammar instruction has been considered necessary for a variety of reasons. For instance, the hypothesis which states that language can be learned by a degree of unconsciousness was found to be very problematic. According to Schmidt (1992; 2001), conscious attention to form (he also calls it noticing) is necessary for language learning. Many researchers, including Bialystok (1994); Dekeyser (1998); Robinson (1995, 2001); Nassaji and

¹Explicit teaching strategies mean that learners are given conscious attention to form whereas implicit teaching strategies mean that learners are given unconscious attention to form

Swain (2000); and Swain and Lapkin (2001), have supported Schmidt's opinion that noticing the grammatical forms has a crucial role in L2 learning.

The question how grammar should be taught in an effective way has been a central issue in discussions and research in the second language field (Ellis, 2006). The controversy concerning the effectiveness of explicit and implicit teaching of grammar has been questioned for decades. Basically, instruction can be direct (explicit) or indirect (implicit). Some researchers (e.g. Omaggio, 1984; McLaughlin, 1978; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Ellis, 1994, 2001; Swain, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 2001) agree that explicit teaching methods are more beneficial for learners, some others (e.g. Krashen, 1982) agree that implicit teaching methods are more helpful for learners, and yet another group of researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1997, Mitchell, 2000, Simard and Wong, 2004) believe that a combination of the two methods is beneficial for optimal learning.

According to Norris and Ortega (2000), explicit instruction is (1) explanation of rules (deductive/ metalinguistic), or (2) it is a direct attention to forms; whilst implicit instruction (1) is not rule explanation, and (2) it is not a direct attention to forms. Moreover, Doughty (2003, p. 265) stated that "explicit instruction includes all types in which rules are explained to learners, or when learners are directed to find rules by attending to forms. Conversely, implicit instruction makes no overt reference to rules".

Moreover, explicit grammar teaching strategies could be presented deductively, whereby grammatical rules are first presented and then examples and practice are followed whilst in implicit teaching strategies; learners are expected to infer the rules on their own from the provided data. The following section presents more details about deductive teaching (an

explicit teaching strategy) and textual enhanced input (an implicit teaching strategy) as they are adopted in this study.

2.9.1 Deductive Teaching

A deductive teaching strategy aims to provide learners with grammatical rules, describe how new structures are formed, what their components are, and in which type of context they can be used. The information in this strategy is given by the teacher (teacher-centred) and requires a teacher to present grammatical patterns followed by examples and then the learners practice them. It is based on the idea that the presentation of grammatical rules achieves optimal learning. Instructors present a rule, define it and then provide instances, which are followed by practice sessions on the subject of the rule. Opportunities for practice and feedback may be provided in order to master a concept. This type of instruction provides a clear clarification of grammatical rules; it is a direct method and may result in making the learning task easier and less intimidating.

DeKeyser (1998) states that in this type of instruction the explicit knowledge (e.g. knowledge about grammar rules) may turn into implicit knowledge (knowledge underlying the use of language) with enough practice.

A considerable number of studies, such as Dekeyser (1998); Galotti et al. (1997); Norris and Ortega (2000); Erlam (2003) and Finestack and Fey (2009), have examined the effects of inductive and deductive teaching approaches. The findings revealed that the participants who

received deductive teaching outperformed those who received inductive teaching. These studies demonstrate that deductive teaching is more appropriate and effective in teaching grammar as it aids the speedy mastering of the linguistic elements. For example, the results of the study by Galotti et al. (1997) revealed that the group which received deductive teaching accurately answered questions faster than the group which received inductive teaching. Furthermore, Cross (1991) and Hedge (2000) favoured deductive teaching due to the fact that, not only does it lead learners to master grammatical rules, but also because it does not take a lot of time (time-saving) for the instructor to explain in class. Hence, learners have more class time for work and to practice communicative activities. In addition, Cross (1991) claimed that adult learners may prefer learning grammatical rules explicitly as this enables them to understand how language works and, as a result, can apply the rules appropriately. Moreover, a variety of rule aspects such as form can be more simply and clearly explained than when elicited from examples (Chalipa, 2013).

The deductive teaching approach has, however, been criticised by a number of researchers such as Richards (1992) on the basis that it provides fewer opportunities for learners to think and infer a concept for themselves. Shaffer (1989) believed that there may be a gap between teaching and learning. Students could deduce grammatical rules and practice them, but in real time communication may not disclose what they have learnt. Another criticism was produced by Sato (1990) who claimed that such instruction might lead to non-target-like use of target forms. Chalipa (2013) likewise criticised deductive teaching, stating that deductive teaching lacks learners' immediate involvement and interaction, which could result in the class being teacher-centred and not demanding in terms of creativity. According to Chalipa, in this type of instruction language is divided into small parts and students are taught grammatical features in

a linear manner. Such classes are often described: (1) as ignoring student needs; using artificial classroom language and thus, boring; and (2) as being limited in terms of exposure to the target language, meaningful communication and interaction which are essential for language acquisition (Long, 2000; Lyster, 2004).

Nassaji and Fotos (2004, p.127) pointed out that the inadequacies of deductive teaching approaches have resulted in other approaches with regards to grammar instruction. One of these is textual enhanced input.

Textual enhanced input is a technique aimed at “making learners aware of the new target language features and rules by highlighting them in the input more or less concisely or elaborately, and with greater or lesser explicitness and intensity” (Sharwood-Smith 1994, p.179). It is one of implicit focus on form teaching techniques². Some researchers, such as Long and Robinson (1998); Doughty and Williams (1998); Poole (2005) Berent et al. (2007) and Afitska (2012) advocated such techniques by stating that when both the meaning and use are provided to learners, it is possible to draw their attention to the form. Learners develop communicative competence through this type of teaching.

When applying implicit focus on form techniques such as textual enhanced input, a teacher is attempting to draw learners’ attention to a linguistic form implicitly without a direct grammar explanation. Izumi (2012, p. 228) provided some of the techniques that are used to achieve implicit focus on form, which include input flood, input enhancement, task-essential language and recast.

²Fof is a mixture between attention to meaning and attention to specific grammatical features through the input enhancement techniques.

Izumi (2012) stated that in an implicit focus on form class, natural communication is generally not interrupted, and the learners are less likely to notice the targeted form.

Generally, implicit instruction strategies are thought of as effective for a variety of reasons. For example, when implicit instruction strategies are applied, learners can take time out from a focus on meaning to noticing targeted linguistic forms in the input. By doing so, learners avoid a complete focus on meaning during which linguistic forms may not be noticed (Loewen, 2003 and Izumi, 2013). Schmidt (1990, 2001) indicated that such noticing reveals the important features in the input and also the targeted forms are made salient in the input, which aid learners to comprehend semantic and syntactic features. A number of studies (Long, 1983; Harley, 1998; Scott, 1989; Master, 1990; Doughty, 1991; Ellis, 1994; Leow, 1997; VanPatten & Cadierno, 1993; Cadierno, 1995; Rosa & O'Neill, 1999; Gass et al., 2002; Yu, 2013) show that noticing is more efficient in teaching, as it facilitates the mastering of linguistic elements. What is more, implicit instruction techniques can provide learners with opportunities for '*pushed output*' which improves the competence of learners as they need to use accurate and appropriate language in order to be understood (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Swain, 2000; Ellis, 2003).

Sharwood-Smith (1981) believed that teaching strategies which draw learners' attention to particular grammatical features are more appropriate and effective. He declared that:

Instructional strategies which draw the attention of the learners to specifically structured regularities of the language, as distinct from the message content, will under certain specified conditions significantly increase the rate of acquisition over and above the rate expected from learners acquiring that language under natural circumstances where attention to form may be minimal and sporadic (cited in Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith 1985, p.275).

Long and Robinson (1998) pointed out that implicit teaching techniques include typographical textual enhancement. The following section presents more details about this technique as it is of significance to this study.

2.9.2 Textual (typographical) Input Enhancement

Input enhancement can be defined as any technique which is designed to draw learners' attention to target features by making these features salient in context (Sharwood Smith, 1991 1993; Takahashi, 2001; Wong, 2003). Leow defined input enhancement as:

Attempts to draw learners' attention to targeted forms in the input by highlighting or making salient these forms through the use of typographic manipulation (e.g. large type sizes and different typefaces) and typographic cues, (e.g. bolding, colour shading and coding, underlining and uppercasing etc. (1997, p.167)

Drawing learners' attention to a particular target structure can be achieved through the manipulation of typography such as different type faces and large font sizes, and by using typographic cues such as underlining, italicizing, capitalizing, highlighting, colour coding or bolding (Schmidt, 1990; Jourdenais et al., 1995; Nunan, 2004 ; Yu, 2013). Such manipulations make the target structures prominent, thereby aiding learners to recognize their property in context.

A number of studies have been carried out to investigate the effectiveness of input enhancement techniques. For instance, the studies of White (1998) and Lee (2007) were

conducted to examine the role of different techniques of input enhancement. The results show that the group which received the visual input enhancement technique outperformed the group that received the input flood technique³. Moreover, the studies of Shook (1994) and Jourdenais et al. (1995) indicated that input enhancement techniques are helpful in turning input into intake. For example, the study of Jourdenais et al. (1995) examined the effect of typographic manipulation and typographic cues (e.g. the use of bold and italics) on learners who notice grammatical elements in the written input. The participants were ten college-level students who were divided into two groups: the first group received a text-enhanced input and the second group received non-enhanced teaching input. The findings show that students who received the text enhancement strategy outperformed the other group because input enhancement might make grammatical forms easier to notice and consequently, to be acquired.

However, studies by Alanen (1995) and Leow (1997) demonstrated that input enhancement techniques alone may not lead to the ability to master the target form. For example, Alanen's study (1995) examined the effect of italic enhanced texts. Four groups took place in this study: group 1 received enhanced input; group 2 received explicit rule presentation; group 3 received explicit rule presentation and enhanced input (i.e. targeted forms are made salient with italics); and group 4 was the control group. The results revealed that although the subjects who received input enhancement techniques outperformed the control group, the group which received explicit rule presentation exhibited higher scores than the others.

The different findings of studies on the role of input enhancement can be attributed to a variety of reasons. First, the researchers' choices of different methodologies (such as comprehension

³Wong (2005, p. 37) defines input flood as "The input learners received is saturated with the form that we hope learners will notice and possibly acquire. We do not usually highlight the form in any way to draw attention to it nor do we tell learners to pay attention to the form. We merely saturate the input with the form".

and production) may lead to contradictory findings. Second, the length of the selected text and time provided to finish it affects the findings. Third, the duration of the study affects its results and therefore, according to Long (1996), the longer the study is, the more accurate the results are.

Nevertheless, although research has provided valuable insights on implicit instruction techniques, they have been criticised for various reasons. VanPatten (1990, 1996) claimed that in implicit instruction techniques, learners, especially beginners, may face difficulties in paying attention to form and meaning simultaneously, in which case they often prioritize meaning over form when communicative activities are performed. Moreover, Poole (2003) claimed that class size can be another problematic area for implicit instruction. He, in line with Long and Robinson (1998), pointed out that implicit instruction seems optimally suitable for small classrooms in which learners can orally address their problematic forms through classroom discussion. Yu (2001) and Butler (2004) argued that some English teachers may lack a high level of oral skill which can be awkward when employing implicit instruction, as it requires teachers to have native-like fluency.

Poole (2003) highlighted a further problem associated with the learners' and teachers' spoken language in the classroom. When learners face communicative difficulties, both teachers and learners may use their native language (i.e. they code switch) to overcome such difficulties. Celghorn and Rollnick (2002) claimed that code-switching is a familiar phenomenon in many places including Africa. When learners' native language is used frequently to overcome communicative issues in classrooms, it can result in making implicit instruction impractical to utilise.

Another shortcoming of this type of instruction can apply culturally, as the instruction may be considered to be individualistic rather than collectivist. Learners in individualistic instruction tend to wish to ask questions, provide responses and engage in debate in which they are seen as competitive, whereas students in collectivist instruction tend to be less likely to engage in question and debate. Learners in collectivist instruction settings are motivated to maintain formal and distant relationships with their teachers. As a result, since implicit instruction is very individualistic, in that errors are often addressed on an individual base, societies which employ collectivist instruction, such as Arabic societies may find this form of teaching to be at odds with their cultural values. Implicit teaching instruction can be successful when it takes place in a cultural atmosphere which allows learners to actively contribute to daily activities. Consequently, teachers and learners feel some discomfort in allowing learners to be active members- and occasionally leaders- in the content and way in which they learn (McCargar 1993, p.195).

According to Poole (2005, p.52) research on implicit instruction techniques is conducted more in developed countries with few (if any) having taken place in developing countries, where classes are overcrowded, up-to-date sources may not be available and teachers may not have received sufficient preparation in language skills and pedagogy.

Finally, it is important to note that in the literature, various views are provided in accordance with the effectiveness of explicit and implicit instruction. For instance, Alanen (1995); Erlam (2003) and Nagaratam (2013) emphasized the significance of explicit instruction because it can assist learners to master grammatical elements amongst other aspects. By contrast, Scott (1989), Andrew (2007) and Lee (2007) favoured implicit instruction as it can assist learners to achieve fluency in L2.

In addition, some studies were conducted to determine the effects of explicit/implicit teaching strategies on the development of syntactic complexity, improving students' writings and vocabulary size. The following section presents more details.

2.9.3 The Effects of Instruction on the Development of Syntactic Complexity and Vocabulary

There are numerous studies (e.g. Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998; Ortega, 2003; Macaro and Masterman, 2006; Nadarajan, 2009; Amirian and Sadeghi, 2012; and Nazari, 2013) that have investigated the effects of explicit and implicit instructional strategies on the development of syntactic complexity, lexical diversity and fluency. Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998, p. 69) define syntactic complexity as 'a manifest in writing primarily in terms of grammatical variation and sophistication'. According to Ortega (2003), 'Syntactic complexity is manifest in second language writing in terms of how varied and sophisticated the production units or grammatical structures are'. In other words, grammatical complexity means that a learner writes longer production units, uses a wide variety of syntactic patterns, including basic and advanced structures, and is able to use forms considered sophisticated in the speech community, whereas a lack of complexity means that a learner regularly writes shorter production units and only

uses a narrow range of basic structures. The purpose of testing syntactic complexity is for comparing pre-test and post-test results in experimental studies to study the effect of a particular treatment such as the teaching methods, classroom practices or grammar instruction.

In one study, Fearn and Farnan (2007, p. 2) set out to answer the research question, 'is there a way to teach grammatical structures that will, positively affect writing performance?' They adopted an experimental design and worked with L2 students in a high school. There were three groups: two experimental groups and the control group. With the experimental groups, the researchers taught grammar in the context of writing for 10-12 minutes twice a week for five weeks; the class teacher followed up in other lessons with review and practice. A similar amount of time was given to traditional grammar instruction in the control group. The two treatment classes and one control class all focused on a similar grammar unit, looking at the noun, verb, adjective, dependent and independent clause. The post-test analysis showed that students in the treatment groups improved their writing performance and used longer T-units than the control group.

In another study, Nadarjan (2009) compared the performance of 129 first year undergraduate students, who were divided into 6 groups. 3 groups received implicit instruction, (meaning-based implicit instructional input) and the other 3 were subject to explicit instruction (rule-based explicit instructional input). The results stated that the groups that received implicit instruction gained more vocabulary and wrote more complex expressions, such as subordinating conjunctions than the ones which received explicit instruction. Moreover, the findings showed that though both groups increased their vocabulary level, the performance of the rule-based explicit instruction groups was lower than that of the meaning-based implicit instructional group. In addition, the study of (Macaro and Masterman 2006) investigated the

effect of explicit grammar instruction on grammatical knowledge and writing proficiency in first-year L2 learners at a UK university. 12 students received a course in grammar in order to determine whether a short but intensive explicit instruction was sufficiently powerful to bring about an improvement in their grammatical knowledge and performance in production tasks.

Students were tested at three points over five months, and the results were compared with a group which did not receive the intervention. The findings proved that explicit instruction leads to gains in some grammatical aspects although not gains in accuracy in the learners' composition.

A study by Ghapanchi and Sabouri (2013) conducted on 66 L2 Iranian learners of English, included two groups: the experimental group which received an implicit teaching strategy, (i.e. the employment and the use of special pictures) and the control group which was taught through traditional instruction by explanation of the grammatical rules and doing the exercises in the textbook. The results revealed that the experimental subjects attained significantly higher mean scores in both their speaking and writing achievement tests. This result concluded that the implicit instructional techniques may have a positive impact on the writing ability of the students. They stated that the possible explanation for this difference in performance between the two groups could very well be the impact of implicit instruction of grammar via pictures on improvement of the experimental group's writing skills and spoken ability.

A study conducted by Doughty (1991) examined the effect of focus on meaning, rule-based instruction, and exposure regarding relative clauses. In this study, there were three groups: the meaning-orientated group received lexical and semantic rephrasing of relative clauses in reading comprehension tasks, the rule-orientated group received rule statement, and the control group only received exposure to relative clauses in the texts. The results show that the rule

orientated and meaning orientated groups both outperformed the control group. Moreover, the meaning orientated group achieved more than the other two groups on comprehension tests and used more complex expressions in writing.

Moreover, the study of Siyyari (2005) examined the effects of explicit/implicit instruction on the development of accuracy and production. This analysis involved 60 L2 learners of English at a language centre in Iran who were taught four grammatical structures. The treatment of this study required the teachers to provide the learners with the type of task that pushed the learners to use the meant structures in a way that the completion of the task was not possible without using them. There were two groups: the experimental group received focus on form through corrective recast, and the comparison group received focus on form through delayed, explicit focus on form. That is, the experimental group received focus on form during the tasks through corrective recast, whereas the comparison group received delayed, explicit correction after finishing the tasks. The results revealed that the experimental group outperformed the comparison group in terms of the average accuracy gains. That is, they were able to be free from errors while using language to communicate in writing. The study revealed that implicit focus on form can lead to higher linguistic accuracy in comparison to delayed, explicit focus on form.

In addition, the study of Mak (2009) examined the role and effect of explicit form-focused instruction on the syntactic complexity development of L2 learners of English in Hong Kong. The explicit focus-form instruction (FFI) treatment involved was a 13 week long course offered to a group of students in a college in Hong Kong. With this group, target structures were introduced, and their meaning and forms were explained. Exercises such as questions and discussions were presented after each lesson. Data collection was done in three phases: pre-

test1, pre-test 2 and post-test. The ANOVA results indicate that explicit FFI has a substantial and evident effect on metalinguistic knowledge development but no significant effects on most of the syntactic complexity measures. This study did not provide empirical support for the effect of explicit FFI on most of the syntactic complexity measures including sentence types and the acquisition of target structures. Data show that in Pretest 2, learners used shorter sentences, more simple sentences, less subordination and fewer clauses per T-unit. Mak interpreted this result to two reasons. First, students tend to stick to the secondary students' rules of using simple and short sentences or avoiding using forms with which they are not so confident. Second, processing capability is limited and when students devote most of their attention to contents, they tend to use simpler structures which require less cognitive attention.

Generally, the above mentioned studies examined the effects of different strategies of explicit/implicit instruction on aspects such as accuracy and fluency. Thus, it can be concluded that implicit teaching strategies may assist learners in developing syntactic complexity. Even though learners who were exposed to explicit instruction strategies as a whole did significantly better on the grammar tests than the ones who received implicit instruction strategies. It can be argued that perhaps the explicit treatment only influenced the groups' explicit knowledge and had no effect on their implicit knowledge. It is possible that the groups which received implicit teaching strategies could not explain what they have learned by counts on a grammar test, however, they would have been able to establish long-term, implicit knowledge gains in their writing and oral communication.

Concerning explicit teaching, it can be concluded that explicit teaching of grammar was of benefit, although to be effective grammar had to be taught in a way that was compatible with the natural processes of acquisition. Martinsen (2000, p. 123) stated that "the grammar must be

taught in the context of students' writings". To make teaching effective, grammar instruction classrooms need to connect rules with usage in authentic tasks. Such a technique may lead to improved results in learners' accuracy as well as fluency as opposed to teaching grammar as a formal system.

Moreover, some studies (e.g. Andrews, 2007 and Senoussi, 2012) showed that learners who receive explicit teaching strategies may know the grammatical rule but were unable to apply it in real communication. In other words, such learners are still unable to use their knowledge of grammatical rules to attain some communicative purposes. For instance, Senoussi (2012, p. 2) stated that

Our learners are taught grammar, but even if they can apply the rules to their daily tasks successfully, they don't seem to be able to activate that knowledge while communicating. Many teachers are thus, familiar with the phenomenon of learners who get full marks on tests as well as on most of the grammar tasks of a particular grammatical structure, but unfortunately, fail to use the same structure appropriately during another part of the lesson or in another context.

Generally, in the literature, research on the role of grammar has focused on explicit/implicit instruction on grammar acquisition. There are a few studies, however, that have examined the role of explicit/implicit instruction strategies on the developments of other measures such as syntactic complexity, grammatical developments, learners' writings and fluency (Wang 2014). This study adds to the literature in that it examines the role of explicit/implicit instruction in improving the use of the English article system, the learners' writings and vocabulary size. (More details on how such improvements are measured are presented later).

2.9.4 The Use of Deductive Teaching and Textual Enhanced Input in This Study

Both deductive teaching and textual enhanced input teaching strategies have been praised by some researchers and criticised by others. Despite the criticism of these two kinds of teaching,

the current study has adopted them. The objective of using these two strategies is to establish which is the most effective and therefore, would be more appropriate as regards the teaching of the English article system to Libyan students.

In other words, these teaching strategies were used in order to determine which one assists Libyan first year university students to use the English article system appropriately. It is necessary, however, to consider the bigger picture with regards to the effectiveness of teaching strategies in aspects other than the English article system. In addition, a look at other aspects, which Libyan learners have gained, is also essential. In order to achieve this, two measurement methods were utilized to measure the grammatical development and lexical diversity of the students' writings. The T-unit was used to measure the grammatical development and type-token ratio (TTR), in order to determine how many different words are used in a text.

2.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has provided an overview of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), error analysis (EA), deductive teaching and textual enhanced input teaching techniques. The CAH has been defined from a variety of perspectives. Likewise, strong/weak versions of CAH, the role of transfer and the criticism it has faced have been discussed. The second part of the chapter reviewed EA in terms of definition, its role in SLA, and the classification and processes of errors. Finally, the distinction between implicit and explicit instruction techniques and the strengths and weaknesses of each approach have been highlighted.

To conclude, it is noted that a number of theories of L2 have sought to establish how learning is processed and how learners master a language. CA theory claims that L2 learning can be achieved by comparing L1 and L2 and finding similarities and differences between them.

Being aware of the differences between the languages may assist learners to overcome their learning problems and may assist researchers in the design of appropriate teaching materials for use in teaching L2. Nevertheless, this theory has been criticized by a variety of researchers. Criticism of CAH resulted in the emergence of EA, which posits that by analysing learners' errors, researchers can find areas of learning difficulties and help learners overcome these problems. The debate on how learners acquire a language has resulted in researchers examining teaching strategies and investigating their impact on learners. Certain teaching strategies—deductive teaching approach, (an explicit instruction strategy) and typographical input enhancement, (an implicit instruction strategy) —are used in this study to ascertain their impact on first year Libyan learners of English at Garyounis University.

As the English article system is used in teaching the chosen teaching strategies in this study, and the CAH method has been adopted to compare the English and Arabic article systems, the next chapter provides details on the English and Arabic article systems in terms of their forms and uses in both languages.

Chapter 3

The Article System in English and Arabic

3.0. Introduction

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the English article system has been chosen because Arab learners of English in general (Kharma, 1981, Al-Buainain, 2007, Crompton, 2011 and Grami, 2012) and Libyan learners in particular (Hewaydi, 2007 and Al-Khasawneh, 2010) experience difficulties in mastering the English article system. This chapter is divided into three parts. The first part provides definitions of the terms *definiteness*, *specificity* and *genericity* in English and Arabic from different perspectives. This is in order to offer readers more information about the article systems in both languages and show them various options regarding how they are viewed. Most are mentioned in this study, making it easier for readers to understand what such terms mean.

The second part is a comparative analysis of the English and Arabic article systems from the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) point of view. It is claimed that similarities between the two languages may facilitate learning and that differences between them obstruct learning, making it problematic and resulting in errors. In order to compare the English/ Arabic article systems, the researcher used examples from authentic texts (see appendix E). This comparison is of vital importance to this study as it may assist the researcher to achieve the following: (1) Understand Libyan students' difficulties in learning the English article system, (2) Recognize the reasons for these problems especially the role that L1 may play in the process of acquisition, (3) Observe what kinds of errors Libyan learners of English may commit in this study, and (4) Recognize which English article may be misused frequently by Libyan students and why. Most examples used in this chapter are from the authentic texts in appendix E and

are coded as *[text ..]* followed by the number of the example in the texts. Further details about the authentic texts are provided at the end of this chapter.

The third part discusses the literature point of view with regard to teaching the English article system for second language learners. As the results of some studies (e.g. Pica, 1985 and Master, 1997, 2002) confirm that grammatical complex systems such as the article system can be taught via choosing an appropriate grammar design, this part examines the SLA research viewpoint.

3.1. Definiteness in English

The literature contains opinions which are used to define the term *definiteness*. A number of linguists, philosophers and logicians (e.g. Chafe, 1976; Hawkins, 1978; 1991 Givon, 1978; Bickerton, 1981; Heim, 1982; Quirk et al., 1985; Lambrecht, 1994; Egli and Heusinger, 1995; Lyons, 1999 and Ionin, 2003) have defined definiteness as a semantic property from different points of views. For instance, according to Russell (1905), cited in Hawkins 1978, definiteness is based on *uniqueness* vs. *existentiality*. Other linguists (e.g. Kamp, 1981 and Heim, 1982) have defined definiteness in terms of anaphoric properties, *familiarity identifiability* vs. *locatability*. Moreover, linguists such as Egli and Heusinger (1995) defined definiteness in terms of the situational use of the definite determiner phrases. Some of these opinions are discussed below.

3.1.1 Uniqueness and Existentiality

A number of philosophers and theorists have made attempts to examine the concept of definiteness. One attempt was made by Russell in the early part of the 20th century (1905). He offered definiteness in terms of *uniqueness* vs. *existentiality*. His decisions were based on

countable-nouns. In order to show the difference between the definite and indefinite articles, he provided the following example:

(1) *The king of France is wise.*

According to Russell, this sentence represents a conjunction of three proposals.

1.a- There is a king of France. (An existential claim)

1.b- There is not more than one king of France. (A uniqueness claim)

1.c- This king is wise. (A prediction claim)

The three proposals follow a logical entailment; if one sentence is false, the other proposals are false. The assertion of (1) is the assertion of the other three, that is, *a*, *b*, *c*. To Russell, (1a) refers to an existential phrase which claims the existence of a king by using a definite description. (1b) has a uniqueness reference about the object, i.e. the existence of only one person stated. (1c) claims that the prediction is related to this existing and unique person. Russell believed that whether (1) is true or false depends on all three proposals; if one of the three proposals is false, (1) will be false as well.

According to Russell, an entity is unique when it is indicated by a singular noun with the article *the*; and an entity which is marked by *a* does not refer to uniqueness but may still exist.

Russell's contribution to express definiteness is through the propositions: *existentiality* and *uniqueness*. Existentiality may be used with definite as well as indefinite descriptions. Since existentiality can be established in both definite and indefinite articles, *Uniqueness* is usually accepted as describing definiteness (Roberts, 2003). Uniqueness, from a pragmatic point of

view, can provide an explanation of the use of the definite article *the* with *Nouns* both in linguistic and non-linguistic settings. The following examples demonstrate this as follows.

(2) *A little boy loved to come and play around it every day. The little boy had grown up.* [Text 1.3]

(3) *She went to the merchant's home and knocked at the door.* [Text 23.8]

(4) *Do you mind cleaning the shelf before I put the computer on it?* (Lyons, 1999, p. 3)

(5) *Put these dirty dishes in the kitchen please.* (Lyons, 1999, p. 3)

Linguistic contexts are presented in examples (2) and (3). In example (2), the noun phrase *the little boy* bears a unique referent as it is mentioned previously in the discourse. In (3), there is a unique relationship between the merchant's house and the door i.e. a house has a door. Hence, *the* was used with the noun *door*. Non-linguistic contexts are illustrated in examples (4) and (5). In (4, 5), the nouns *the shelf* and *the kitchen* bear unique referents in the immediate situation.

Moreover, Lyons (1999, p. 8) believed that the definite article *the* can “involve the idea of uniqueness: the definite article signals that there is just one entity which satisfies the description used”. To Lyons, uniqueness can be explained through the use of the definite article *the* in logical expressions such as superlatives adjectives or in hypothetical situations. In such cases, the use of the indefinite article is incompatible. The following examples (from Lyons, 1999, p. 9) demonstrate this.

(6). *She is *a/ the best actress I have ever met.* (Semantically unique expression)

(7). *She is *a/ the last student in the class.*

(8). *The winner will get a trip to Italy.*

(9) *The person who joins me will not regret it.*

Examples (6, 7) show uniqueness and hence, an indefinite article cannot be used. Likewise, in (8) and (9) there is a unique winner who will win a trip to Italy and a unique person who will join the speaker even though the situation is hypothetical because the race has not yet finished and the person who will join the speaker is not yet identifiable.

However, Russell's account has been criticized by a number of researchers. For example, Strawson (1971) criticized Russell point of producing the three propositions on an equal basis. According to Strawson, in his example, *The king of France is wise*, the existential sentence *there is a king of France* and the uniqueness sentence *there is not more than one king of France* are not asserted by (1), i.e. *The king of France is wise*. In Strawson's opinion, only (1c), which bears the predication of wisdom, can be asserted by (1). Moreover, according to Lucas (2010), for example, if one were to assert (1) in year 2010, this would be a false sentence, because the existential claim in (1a) is (at present) false.

Such a criticism has led some linguists such as Christophersen (1939) and Strawson (1952) to claim that *familiarity* and *identifiability*, (which will be discussed later) should be more appropriately used to describe definiteness rather than *uniqueness*.

3.1.2 Familiarity

According to Christophersen (1939, p.72), familiarity refers to "an association between the potential meaning of a word and previously acquired knowledge, by which it can be inferred that only one definite individual is meant". Moreover, Christophersen (1939, pp. 69-70) described the use of the definite article *the* as:

The use of a the-form it is necessary that the thing meant should occupy so prominent a place in the listener's mind that by the mention of the form the right idea is called up. There must be a basis of understanding and the purpose of the article *the* is to refer to this basis, to indicate 'the thing you know.' This function may be described as 'familiarization', if this is taken to mean 'the indication (not the creation) of familiarity.

He believed that the NP with the definite article *the* reveals that both the speaker and the hearer are familiar with what was mentioned with *the*. When the referent is not in the hearer's mind, a question arises as to *what* is expected, as in:

(10) *A: I was at the park yesterday and I saw the accident.*

B: (surprise) What accident?

A: Didn't I tell you about.

The question (i.e. what accident?) was asked because the hearer is not familiar with what the speaker referring to, that is, the *accident*. Christophersen (1939, p. 28) believed that in order for a speaker to be understood, "it is important that he should not use words and phrases which the hearer is likely to misinterpret even if the hearer knows the class of objects in general that are under consideration (i.e. knows the word itself)". Familiarity may reveal the distinction between the definite article *the* and the indefinite article *a* in terms of definiteness.

In line with Christophersen, Lyons (1999, p. 3) stated that "in familiarity hypothesis *The* signals that the entity denoted by the noun phrase is familiar to both speaker and hearer, and *a* is used where the speaker does not want to signal such shared familiarity".

However, Christophersen's account of familiarity was criticized by a number of researchers. Perridon (1989), for instance, believed that weaknesses in the familiarity theory can be revealed through the use of the indefinite article with noun phrases. Here is an example:

(11) *You have a handsome husband.*

The hearer should be familiar with the NP marked with *a* (i.e. a handsome husband) because he is her husband. This means that familiarity may be referred to by the indefinite article *a*. Such criticism led to the emersion of the notions *identifiability* and *locatability* being defined as features of definiteness.

3.1.3 Identifiability and Locatability

Some linguists (e.g. Searle, 1969) have also defined identifiability as a redefinition of uniqueness and familiarity. Searle (1969, p. 85-86) drew up a principle of identification and according to him:

Identification entails that the hearer be able to identify the object from the speaker's utterance of the expression. By identify here I mean that there should no longer be any doubt or ambiguity about what exactly is being talked about. ... after something has been identified one may still ask 'what?' in the sense of 'tell me more about it', but one cannot ask 'what?' in the sense of 'I do not know what you are talking about'.

Lyons (1999) believed that identification requires the readiness of the hearer to identify the NP preceded by *the*. To him, in order for a hearer to identify which object is being referred to, a hearer needs to make some effort to achieve this. The following examples illustrate his point.

(12) *Do you mind cleaning the shelf before I put the television on it please?*

Now, for instance, somebody needs to hang a picture on the wall while he/ she is on a ladder, and during that time, his/her father enters the room and without looking at him, he/she says to him:

(13) *Pass me the picture, please?*

The comparison between examples (12) and (13) reveals that in (12) the hearer is familiar with *the shelf* being talked about as he/she is in the room and knows that there is a shelf in the room, whereas in (13) the hearer (i.e. father) is not familiar with *the picture* as he has just entered the room. At the time when the speaker utters the sentence, the hearer does not know that there is a picture in the room and he has to look for it. The use of the definite article *the* with the noun *picture* informs the father that he is able to identify which picture is being referred to. Hence, it can be concluded that in such a case familiarity is tenuous but identifiability is not.

There are some cases (e.g. associative uses) in which identifiability rather than familiarity occurs. Lyons (1999, p. 3) offered the following example to illustrate this point:

(14) *Our relatives have just got in from Cairo. The plane was three hours late.*

Lyons believes that since there is a journey, the involvement of a plane is possible and the use of the definite article with the noun *plane* assists the hearer to associate the referent with the journey from Cairo. According to Lyons (1999, p. 6)

The definite noun phrase *the plane* authorizes the hearer to associate its referent with this journey, confirming the possible association. It does this by indicating that its referent can be identified by the hearer, and the most straightforward identification is with a plane the travellers probably came on... .

Lyons (1999), however, stated that there are other cases in which uniqueness takes place rather than identifiability. He claimed that some associative uses can be problematic in terms of identifiability and presented the following example:

(15) *I just have been to a wedding. The bride wore white.*

To Lyons, the use of the definite article with the noun *bride* is successful as the hearer knows that a wedding involves a bride. However, the hearer may not be able to identify the bride as he/she does not know who she is. Moreover, if the hearer was asked the next day who got married, he/she might not offer a response similar to the one mentioned above.

Furthermore, Hawkins (1978, p. 167) introduced his location theory as a challenge to *identifiability*. His theory states that the speaker's uses of the definite article *the* acts as follows:

According to my location theory, the speaker performs the following acts when using a definite article. He (a) introduces a referent (or referents) to the hearer; and (b) instructs the hearer to locate the referent in some shared set of objects; and he (c) refers to the totality of the objects or mass within this set which satisfy the referring expression.

Both the speaker and hearer share knowledge of a referent that may exist in sets of different kinds. In order for the speech act to be successful, there are four conditions that should be fulfilled.

Condition (1) *set existence* which requires both the speaker and hearer to share knowledge of the set of objects by which the definite referent is located. Condition (2) *set identifiability* requires the hearer to be able to infer what the referent means either by previously mentioned discourse or the situation of utterance. Condition (3) *set membership* which refers to the existence of the referent in the shared knowledge. Condition (4) *set composition* which consists of three steps: (i) There should be only one object in the shared set "satisfying the descriptive predicate in addition to those referred to by the definite description"; (ii) the number of objects referred to by the definite article should not exceed the number of objects in the shared set. If the number is exceeded, it will be difficult to locate the referent; and (iii) the hearer should be able to infer that the object being referred to as the property that is used to

refer to it. Hawkins (1978, p. 168) illustrated how the violation of the four conditions can cause a communication breakdown.

(16) *I have just seen the professor again.*

I do not think we have met before, have we?

(17) *I have just seen the professor again.*

Which professor?

Oh, didn't I tell you?

(18) *I have just spoken to the professor.*

What?

That one over there?

No, the one I was just talking to you about.

(19) *The two teachers.*

In (16) the breakdown of communication has occurred because both the speaker and hearer did not share a previous talk-exchange. Hence, as the speaker and hearer have no shared set of objects, conditions (1) and (2), i.e. location and identification are left out. Sentences (17) and (18) reveal the relationship between condition (2) and condition (3). They should work together in agreement; as when one of them is not fulfilled, a breakdown of communication may occur. In example (17), *identifiability* (i.e. condition 2) is met whereas *membership* (i.e. condition 3) is not. The breakdown occurs because the hearer does not know which professor the speaker is referring to. In example (18), *membership* (condition 3) is met whereas *identifiability* (condition 2) is not. The breakdown has occurred because the hearer failed to identify which professor is being referred to by the speaker. The hearer has no knowledge of the speaker's intention whether it is, *the one I was just talking to you about* (a previous

discourse set) or, *that one over there* (immediate situation set). Example (19) is linked to condition 4. *The two teachers* may meet condition 4 in that both the speaker and hearer are referring to the number mentioned.

Hawkins' theory contained concepts as mentioned above such as identifiability and *existentiality*. The concepts existentiality and uniqueness, for example, are evident in relation to the speech act and the four conditions, as well as the shared set and the concept inclusiveness.

As inclusiveness is a concept that can be included in the meaning of definiteness, further discussion of it is required.

3.1.4 Inclusiveness

Hawkins (1978, p. 159) provided the following examples in order to explain what the notion of inclusiveness means.

Bring the wickets in after the game of cricket.

In this example, if one considers uniqueness as a “property of set rather than an individual” the hearer is expected to bring a set of four, three or five wickets rather than six. As a result, when the hearer does not bring six wickets (cricket requires six wickets), the speaker may not be satisfied. A further example is presented here:

(20) I must ask you to move the sand from this gate.

If the hearer only moves some sand, the speaker may not be satisfied, the reason being that the speaker is concerned with “the totality of the objects, or to the whole mass, in the relevant shared set, i.e. to all the wickets and all the sand”. According to Hawkins (1978), inclusiveness should be complemented and incorporated with uniqueness. The use of the definite article with

plural nouns or mass nouns has a similar sense to the use of the universal quantifier *all*. The use of the noun phrase *the wickets* in the above example may be understood as a unique set of objects (i.e. wickets).

However, inclusiveness can be equal to uniqueness when the totality of objects which satisfy a definite description amounts to only one. Hawkins (1978) stated that:

...plural and mass nouns with the definite article refer to the totality of the objects or mass in the relevant shared set. But similarly, when a singular count noun is used this simply because the totality in question amounts to no more than one object in this case. (p, 159)

To explain what he means, he provided an example as follows:

(21) *The prime minister is going to resign next month.*

To Hawkins, in sentences such as the one above, the use of the definite article with a singular noun refers to the totality of the object in the relevant shared set because the totality refers to one object, i.e. the prime minister.

Hawkins' notion of inclusiveness has, however, been criticized by a number of linguists. Chesterman (1991, p. 66), for instance, declined the presentation of inclusiveness with the term *all*. He presented the following example.

(22) *The Americans have reached the moon.*

According to Chesterman, not *all Americans* reached the moon. *The Americans* in the above example refer to representatives of a whole set. He believed that the use of *the* with the meaning of *all*, means "all with respect to the relevant intents and purposes, more or less".

Huddleston (2002) believed that the use of the definite article *the* with plural nouns does not necessarily refer to the whole entity of an object. The following examples demonstrate this point (p. 370).

(23) **a.** *The bathroom tiles are cracked.* **b.** *All the bathroom tiles are cracked.*

In (23a) the sentence does not mean that every tile is cracked (i.e. the crack is not necessarily present in every individual tile, however, in (23 b), every tile is cracked (i.e. the crack is applied to every individual tile).

In summary, some elements of definiteness such as *existentiality*, *uniqueness*, *familiarity*, *identification*, *locatability* and *inclusiveness* have been explored, now other aspects of the meaning of the English articles such as *specificity* and *genericity* should be considered.

3.2 Specificity in English

According to Brinton (2000, p. 292), “information is specific if it denotes a particular entity in the real world, whereas it is nonspecific if it denotes no particular entity in the real world.” To Brinton, specific refers to particular members of the set. Both definite and indefinite articles can be used in specific and generic phrases. According to Bickerton (1981), the difference between the article *the* and *a/* zero can be realized in terms of two features: [\pm Specific Reference] and [\pm Hearer Knowledge]. The former means that the article and the noun phrase which arises jointly with it may or may not have a specific reference. The latter refers to whether what is mentioned in a sentence is known to the speaker and hearer from a context or previous discourse.

From a different perspective, Brinton (2000), Ionin (2003) and Ionin et al. (2004) believe that article-based languages such as English and Arabic have two different settings: [\pm definite] distinction and [\pm specific] distinction. [+definite] can be expressed by *the*. It means that the speaker and hearer assume the existence of a unique individual in the sentence, whereas [-definite] can be expressed by *a/an* and zero where no unique individual reference is mentioned. Moreover, Specificity [+ specific] means that the speaker intends a reference to a

unique individual in a sentence. According to Brinton (2000) and Ionin et al. (2004), English articles do not encode specificity. This claim can be supported by the fact that both definite and indefinite articles can be used to refer to specific and non-specific references, but a definite article cannot be used to refer to an indefinite reference, and an indefinite article cannot have a definite reference. Taking this analysis as a basis, some researchers such as Lyons (1999) and Brinton (2000) divided NP into four major semantic types. Lyons (1999, p. 172) provided the following examples to illustrate the theory.

1-[+ Definite, + Specific]

(24) *We cannot start the lesson, because the student who is giving the presentation is absent-
typical of John, he is so unreliable.*

2-[+ Definite, - Specific]

(25) *We cannot start the lesson, because the student who is giving the presentation is absent-
I'd go and find whoever it is, but no-one can remember, and half the class is absent.*

3- [- Definite, + Specific]

(26) *A cat was in here last week- it is called Sulu and Adam always lets it sit by the fire on
cold nights.*

4-[- Definite, - Specific]

(27) *A cat was in here last week- there is no other explanation for these scratch marks on the
wall.*

It can be seen from the underlined expressions above in (24) that the speaker refers to a particular student. In (25) the speaker does not refer to a particular student and the hearer cannot identify this. The NP, *a cat* in (26) refers to a particular cat in the speaker's mind (i.e. a cat which is familiar to the speaker). In (27) *a cat* does not refer to a particular cat and neither the speaker nor the hearer can identify it.

The examples mentioned above show that both the definite and indefinite articles with singular nouns can bear specific references. However, a definite article cannot refer to an indefinite reference and vice versa. As a result, what is significant about the article usage is whether the noun is definite or indefinite because when the speaker and hearer are able to identify the object being talked about, the definite article can be used, when not, the indefinite article is used.

Another notion that has been linked to the article system is *genericity*. The relationship *genericity* has with *definiteness* can be described below.

3.3 Genericity in English

Genericity has more than one form. The three forms of the articles, *the*, *a (n)*, and *zero* can be used to express genericity. Some researchers (e.g. Lyons, 1999, Longobardi, 2001) believed that genericity refers to an entire class as a whole. Class refers to all objects which satisfy the description of the noun. Additionally, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 265) stated that "the reference is generic, since we are thinking of the class without specific reference".

Each article, and how it has a generic reference, is analysed below.

3.3.1 Generic Reference of *a*

The indefinite article *a/an* can be used to express a generic sense like *A cat has a tail*. According to some researchers (e.g. Quirk et al., 1985, Brinton, 2000) *a* is equivalent to *any*, i.e. *Any cat has a tail*, however, there are some cases in which *a* cannot be substituted by *any* and there are some doubts with regard to the status of genericity of *a*.

First, the predicate (i.e. the verb) plays a role in interpreting whether a sentence expresses a generic reference or not. For example, a sentence such as *A lion is becoming extinct* cannot bear a generic reference as the predicate *be extinct* requires a class expression (that refers to the class as a whole). Burton-Roberts (1976) claimed that a predicate like *becoming extinct* is not an essential characteristic of the lion. Hence, *a+N* can be generic when it obtains predicates that express inherent characteristics like *A horse is a mammal* where *A horse is a mammal* indicates either *being a horse* or *horse-hood*.

Additionally, those who believe that the indefinite article *a* can be substituted by *any* do not make the generic reference of *a+N* equivalent to other generic references (i.e. *the* and zero). However, a number of researchers do not agree that the use of *a+N* to refer to generic reference can be replaced by *any*. Examples are provided by Burton-Roberts (1976, p. 436). Below are alternate results arising from the substitution of *a* with *any* where the use of *any* is not acceptable to replace *a*.

(28) a- *A kitchen is a cooking room.*

b- ?**Any kitchen is a cooking room.*

(29) a- *A whale suckles its young.*

b- ?**Any whale suckles its young.*

(30) a- *A beaver lives in Canada.*

b- ? Any beaver lives in Canada.*

The b-examples mentioned above reveal the unacceptability of substituting *any* with generic *a*.

3.3.2 Generic *the*

The definite article *the* can be used with singular and plural nouns to express genericity. However, with regard to *The + Plural nouns*, definiteness theorists (e.g. Hawkins, 1978, Quirk et al., 1985, Chesterman, 1991, Huddleston, 2002) have different views regarding what constitutes a generic noun phrase. For example, according to Chesterman (1991) *The+ Plural N* can express genericity when reference is made to a set of categories. The following cases (from Burton Roberts, 1981) are examples of this:

(31). Among the lizards, *Iguanas are the most popular as a focal food.*

Quirk et al. (1972) provide the following example:

(32). *He likes the wines of this shop.*

In (31) *the lizards* refer to all types of lizards, i.e. the whole class, likewise, in (32) *the wines* refer to kinds or brands of wine in the afore-mentioned shop.

Hawkins (1978) claimed that when inclusiveness is taken into account, the question under consideration is whether *The+ Plural nouns* can be used to refer to a generic reference. Hawkins believed that when *The+ Plural Nouns* is compared with plural nouns with the zero article (bare plurals), it results in that all the descriptions of plural definite i.e. *the + Plural Nouns* are distinguished where they might be located in a pragmatic set. By contrast, bare plural NPs are not contingent on such limitations. The examples (from Christophersen, 1939) below demonstrate this:

(33) a- *The weather of northern California is ideal for Americans.*

b- *The weather of northern California is ideal for the Americans.*

In example (a), the use of *Americans* (bare plural) refers to all Americans without exception even those who inhabit other parts beyond northern California. Conversely, in (b) the noun *the Americans* is confined to people who live in northern California.

Hawkins (1978, p. 217) also, provided other examples as follows:

(34) a- *Indians are clever.*

b- *The Indians are clever.*

Example (a) shows that every Indian is clever, i.e. the predicate *be clever* is applicable to all Indians. In (b), however, the use of *the*+ plural noun (i.e. the Indians) refers to people of Indian parentage who presently live in Italy. In other words, the NP *the Indians* refers to fewer individuals not all individuals.

3.3.3 Generic Zero

A number of linguists (e.g. Burton-Roberts, 1976) have questioned whether a generic reference exists in an article-marked noun itself or in other aspects in a clause, like the predicate.

For that reason a number of uncertainties have arisen with regards to the use of *all* which is found in generic sentences, in which the occurrence of the zero article is either with a mass noun or a plural noun. There are different points of views as regards the use of nouns with the zero article referring to a generic sense. The examples below demonstrate them:

(35). *Oil floats on water.*

(36). *Rabbits like carrots.*

In example (35), the sentence can be rewritten as *all oil floats on water*, whereas in (36) the use of *all* (i.e. all rabbits like carrots) is not appropriate as nobody can be certain that all

rabbits like carrots. Some researchers (e.g. Lawler, 1973, Chesterman, 1991) have claimed that there are relevant quantifiers (e.g. *in general*, *most*, *at least*) which can be used to rewrite sentence (36).

Carlson (1977) claimed that from a semantic point of view, bare plurals whether their uses are generic or not are the same. He maintained that bare plurals can be interpreted as: the generic interpretation, (it has a reference to almost all members of a denoted kind) and the partitive/existential interpretation. Carlson (1977, p. 53) believed that the choice between these two interpretations is based on the contents of a sentence. Some predicates cause ambiguity because they may be interpreted as inherent or eventful. In order to explain what is meant by this he provides the following examples:

(37). *Cats are clever.*

(38). *Cats are awake.*

(39). *Dinosaurs ate kelp.*

Examples (37) and (38) bear no ambiguity as the predicates in both sentences bear one interpretation. In (37) it is stated that, *cats* are clever, therefore, the reference is generic. In (38), the predicate is reporting an event; thus, its reference is non-generic. However, in (39) the sentence is ambiguous because the verb *ate* can have two meanings: eating kelp can be inherent for dinosaurs or can refer to an event in the past.

According to Lyons (1999, p. 190), not only has the predicate resulted in different interpretations: generic and non-generic, but also there are other factors like locative expression and information structure which are worth consideration. Lyons (1999, p. 190) offered this example.

(40) *a- Tigers live in Africa- so if you want to see tigers, that is the place you have to visit.*

b- Tigers live in Africa- actually there are more tigers in Africa than any other continent.

Example (a) has a generic reference whereas (b) has a non-generic reference. Lyons believed that the possibility of a difference in intonation may cause a difference in structuring information. In other words, *tigers* in (a) is the topic of the sentence, however, in (b) *Africa* is the likely discussion. Thus, the bare plural *tigers* in (b) is the explanation of the sentence.

To summarise, from the above discussion with regards to genericity, it can be concluded that it is a difficult notion to capture. However, by comparing the uses of the articles *the*, *a/an*, and zero in expressing genericity, it can be concluded that each has its prototypical points. *A* accepts one case to signify all other cases, as in *A whale is a mammal*. However, it is only one instance, thus, it may not be used to refer to a full generic sense as in *A whale is becoming extinct*. *The* singles out a class as a whole when it refers to a generic use, as in *the whale is a mammal*, and as it includes all classes, it may be used to express a generic use, as in *the whale is becoming extinct*. Finally, the zero article in its generic use, is rather ambiguous and whether it has a generic reference or not depends on the predication of a sentence. For instance a sentence like *tigers may be dangerous* can be ambiguous whereas *tigers are becoming extinct* bears a generic reference.

3.4 Specificity in Arabic

When a noun phrase is specific, it means that there is “a particular object which the speaker is thinking of as motivating the choice of description” (Lyons, 1999, p.166). According to Ionin (2003), Arabic is an article-based language and its articles encode the distinction [\pm definite]. The examples below demonstrate this concept.

[+ Definite, + Specific]

- (41) Son: *Abi maada taf9el fi hatha al-mustashfa.* [Text 23.1]
Daddy what do in this the hospital.
'What are you doing in this hospital, daddy?'

Father: *kontu ?zoru al-modeer en?hu Sadeqii.*
I was visit the manager he's friend my
'I was visiting the manager. He's my friend.'

[+ Definite, - Specific]

- (42). *fi sebaq as- sayarat*
at race the cars
'At a race.'

A: *kaan ?as-sebaaq momte9.* [Text 24.2]
Was the race interesting
'The race was interesting.'

hel yomkonani ?n oqabel al-faiz?
May I in meet the winner?
'May I meet the winner?'

B: *na9am yomkoniki thaleka.*
Yes you may this
'Yes, you may.'

[- Definite + Specific]

- (43). *fi al-maktaba*
In the library
'In a library'

Librarian: *hel tabHatu 9en šayin ya Taleb?* [Text 25.1]
 Do you look for something student
 ‘Are you looking for something, student?’

Student: *na9am ?bHatu 9en kitabān ?Sfer taraktahu huna.* [Text 25.2]
 Yes I look for book yellow I left here
 ‘Yes, I am looking for a yellow book I left here.’

[-Definite, - Specific]

(44). **A:** *?oredu ?n ?thhabu ila al-maktaba?* [Text 26.1]
 I want in go to the library
 ‘I want to go to the library.’

B: *lematha ?* [Text 26.2]
 Why?
 ‘Why?’

A: *ana musafer wa ?oredu ?n ?sta9eer kitab li ?qra?hu fi aT- Tareeq.* [Text 26.3]
 I travel and I want in borrow a book to read on the way.
 ‘I am travelling and I want to borrow a book to read on the way.’

3.5 Genericity in Arabic

According to Krifka et al. (1995), Lyons (1999) and Ivanov (2009), a generic use refers to an entire class of an entity and contains the general properties of that class as a whole. Arabic differs from English in the way it expresses a generic reference. There is not an indefinite article in Arabic. Arabic uses the definite article *al-* and its absence marks indefiniteness. Unlike English which allows generic reference through the definite article *the*, the indefinite article *a/an* or the zero article, Arabic allows a generic use only through the definite article *al-*

with both singular and plural noun phrases. This generic *al-* is called *al- al-jinseyah*. When a noun is attached to this *al-*, it refers to the whole class, i.e. it represents (all) the class.

2.5.1 Singular Generic Use

(45) *monafasah tadoor beyan America wa australlia ella tasdeer al- qamaH.*

Competition takes place between America and Australia over exporting the wheat.
‘A competition is taken place between America and Australia over exporting wheat.’

(46) *al- fen huwa Soora Seheyah lei- ta9beer.* [Text 4.1]

The art is form healthy to the expression
‘Art is a healthy form to expression.’

(47) *Al- tadkheen ghaar bi SeHateka* [Text 26.1]

The smoking bad for your health
‘Smoking is bad for your health.’

(48) *kul al- masha9er: al- sa9ada wa al-Hozen wa al-me9refa* [Text 10.2]

All the feelings: the happiness and the sadness and the knowledge

‘All the feelings : Happiness, Sadness, Knowledge’

(49) *al- asbestos ma9den Tabe9i.* [Text 15.2]

The asbestos mineral natural
‘Asbestos is a naturally occurring mineral.’

The examples above illustrate how to express genericity; Arabic uses only the definite article *al-* with singular and plural nouns. *Al-* can be used to refer to the whole class of concrete nouns such as *lion*, abstract nouns such as *art* and mass nouns such as *happiness*, whereas in English, according to Quirk et al. (1985), the definite article with singular count nouns, the indefinite article and the zero article can all be used to refer to a generic reference.

3.5.2 Non- Singular Generic Use

In Arabic, the zero article cannot be used to express a generic reference. In other words, bare noun phrases cannot be used to refer to the whole class of an entity. For instance, English allows the sentence *oceans and lakes have a lot in common* to express a generic use of an entity where it refers to the whole class of members. The sentence *the oceans and the lakes have a lot in common* may not express a generic use (Quirk et al., 1985). Arabic, however, does not have such a function. Instead, only the definite article *al-* with singular/plural, count/non-count nouns is used to express a generic use of an entity.

(50) *Lada al- muHeTaat wa al- buHayraat qawasen muštarekah.* [Text 19.1]

Have the oceans and the lakes a lot in common

‘Oceans and lakes have a lot in common.’

(51) *Al- ?Tfaal tho9ofa wa ya9tamedoon koleyan 9ala ?ba?ohom.* [Text 48.8]

The children vulnerable and depend completely on their parents.

‘Children are vulnerable and completely depend on their parents.’

To conclude this section, the above mentioned part has presented examples of features used to define definiteness such as *uniqueness*, *familiarity* and *inclusiveness*. Also, it has shown other meanings such as *genericity* and *specificity* in both English and Arabic. The next section illustrates how English / Arabic articles agree in some points and disagree in others as regards form and functions.

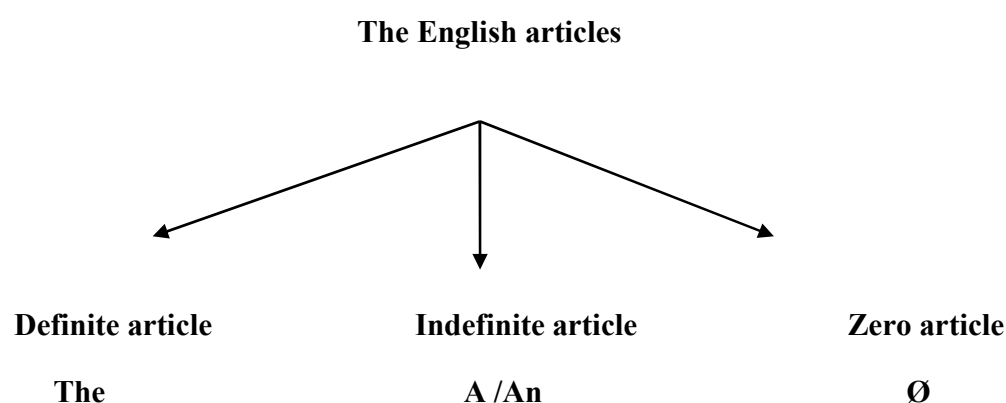
3.6 The Form of the Article System in English and Arabic

3.6.1 The English Articles

Articles are the most common determiners in English. They are characterized as definite *the* and indefinite *a (n)* and Ø. For some linguists (e.g. McEldowney, 1977, Celce-Murcia and

Larsen-Freeman, 1983, Quirk et al., 1985 and Goodman, 1987) English articles are *a (n)*, *the*, \emptyset , and *some*; for others (e.g. Master, 1994) English articles are *a (n)*, *the*, zero (\emptyset). For the sake of simplicity, this study will utilise the work of Master (1994, p.229), who stated that ‘although many researchers include unstressed *some* as a member of the article system, I have restricted the members to these four *a (n)*, *the*, and no article’.

The English articles are shown in the following tree:



3.6.1.1 The Indefinite Article a/an

It is called indefinite because it is usually used to refer to something in a less specific manner. *A/ An* can be used only before singular count nouns. Essentially, *a* and *an* mean one, thus they cannot precede plural or uncountable nouns. The choice of *a/an* depends on phonology. The selection of *a/an* can be determined by phonetic rules rather than by spelling rules. The examples below demonstrate this.

(52) *Take a pen and write.* [Text 4.8]

(53) *A little boy loved to come and play around it.* [Text 1.3]

(54) *We need a house.* [Text 1.16]

(55) *You become physically disabled due to an accident.* [Text 3.18]

(56) *An ocean is very large.* [Text 19.2]

Nevertheless, there are some exceptions regarding the use of *a/an*. For example,

a university not *an university a user not *an user

Although the nouns *university* and *user* begin with a vowel letter *u*, they are preceded by *a* not *an*; the reason being that the nouns *university* and *user* are pronounced with a consonant *y* sound and hence *a* is required. In addition, countable nouns that begin with a silent *h* such as *hour* are used with *an* because the letter *h* is silent and the letter which follows it is a vowel.

(57) *We left them for half an hour.* [Text 56.6]

3.6.1.2 The Zero Article

The zero article can be used before plural count nouns and non-count nouns. According to Master (1997, p. 222), ‘the zero article is the most indefinite of the articles. Its general function is to remove the boundaries that make nouns discrete’. The following examples (from Harwood, 2005, p. 10) illustrate this point:

(58) *The women ate a pizza.*

(59) *The women ate pizza.*

In the first example, the use of *a* indicates that one pizza was eaten, while in the second example, the amount of pizza eaten was not known and hence, undetermined. The zero article can also be used with non-countable nouns and plural countable nouns which are both concrete and abstract.

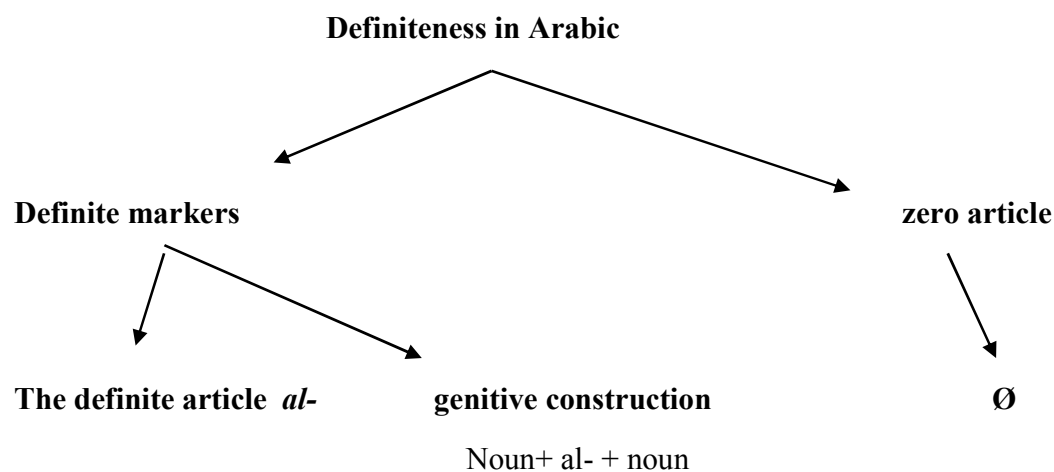
3.6.1.3 The Definite Article

The definite article is expressed through *the* which is a free form. It is called definite because it usually precedes a certain or previously mentioned noun. It can be used before singular/ plural countable nouns and non-countable nouns.

- (60) With a singular countable noun → *The boy came back to the tree.* [Text 1-7]
- (61) With a plural countable noun → *The son started to take out the nails.* [Text 2.11]
- (62) With a non-countable noun → *The sun moves slowly.* [Text 10-2]

3.6.2 The Arabic Articles

Arabic expresses definiteness in three forms. The following tree illustrates this:



3.6.2.1 The Definite Markers

Unlike English, in which there is only one definite article (i.e. *the*), Arabic uses two forms: the use of the article *al-* and use of a genitive construction (Rydin, 2005 and Al-Kulaib 2010). Mansouri (2000, p. 22) stated that in Arabic ‘definiteness is usually achieved by procliticisation i.e. the use of the prefix *al-* or any of its allophones, all of which represent the equivalent of the English *the*.’ Concurring with Mansouri, Habash (2010, p. 99) stated that “definite NPs are either marked with the definite determiner prefix *al-* or a phonetically determined variant, within the construct state by agreement to the definiteness feature of the possessor DP.”

1) The Definite Article *al-*

The definite article *al-* can be used to specify a noun or a noun phrase. It can be used with singular/ plural countable nouns and non-countable nouns. It cliticizes nouns, that is, it is not an independent word.

- (63) *al- walad ?jaab* [Text 1.9]
The boy replied
'The boy replied.'

The difference between English and Arabic with regard to the definite articles *the*, *al-*, is that in English, the phrase *the boy* contains a head noun *boy* and a determiner *the* where *the* forms an independent unit and can be separated from the noun *boy*. In Arabic, however, the phrase *al-walad* (i.e. *The boy*) consists of a head noun *walad* (*boy*) and a determiner *al-*. The definite article and the noun cannot be separated and *al-* is written as a part of the word and it is obligatorily proclitic.

The Features of the Definite Article *al-*

(1) It is a prefix. Unlike English, the Arabic definite article is not a free form. It is a prefix or a proclitic particle and is attached to the noun and written as a part of it.

- (64) *aš- ša:jera* [Text 1.8]
The tree
'The tree'

- (65) *al- madrasah* [Text 9.13]
The school
'The school'

(2) The assimilation of *laam l-*. The pronunciation of *al-* depends on the initial letter of the noun it is attached to. *Al-* can be pronounced in two ways: the full pronunciation of *al-* and the assimilation of *l-*. The former takes place when a noun begins with a moon letter *Huruuf Qamaryah* and the latter when a noun begins with a sun letter *Huruuf šamsiyah*. In the case of assimilation *l-* becomes silent and the first letter of the word that *a* is attached to is doubled.

(66) *at- tufaHah* [Text 1.14]
 The apple
 ‘The apple’

(67) *As- siyaaj* [Text 2.7]
 The fence
 ‘The fence’

However, in writing, the definite article is always written in its full form (i.e. *al-*); regardless of the way it is pronounced (Mace, 1998, p. 12). There is disagreement regarding English and Arabic in terms of written vs. spoken languages. Western linguists such as Miller and Weinert (1998) believed that some typological conclusions that have been made about language are based on a written language which was recently considered different from the spoken language and that such differences between spoken and written varieties have not been taken into account. Miller and Weinert (1998, p. 382) pointed out that “writing is an optional accessory and that the real engine of verbal communication is the spoken language we acquire as children”.

3.6.2.2 Genitive Construction (Addition)

Bateson (1967, p. 10) stated that nouns can be definite when followed by “a determining complement which may be the second noun in a construct phrase”. A genitive construction

refers to two nouns in a sentence. The first noun is in a construct relationship with the second noun. In other words, a noun phrase consists of two nouns merged together to form a constituent. The first noun (the possessed) should be indefinite whereas the second (the possessor) should be preceded by *al-*, unless it is a proper noun. When a noun phrase has this construction, it is definite as it is modified by a following definite noun in the genitive.

In English, this construction can be made with the preposition *of* (i.e. cataphoric reference which will be discussed later) or by using possessive's. The examples below demonstrate the case.

(68) *The price of the goods* [Text 8.8]

(69) *The store of the owner= the owner's store.* [Text 34.2]

In Arabic, such sentences are equivalent to:

(70) *Se9er al- bagha?e9.*
 Price the goods.
 'The price of the goods'

(71) *MaHel al- malek*
 Store the owner
 'The store of the owner'

Although the words *price* and *store* are not preceded by *al-*, they are considered definite for they are in a state of construction. The definite article does not precede the first nouns (i.e. *price* and *store*) for the reason that they are set as definite by means of addition.

Moreover, when the second noun is a proper noun, the whole phrase is considered a definite noun phrase.

(72) *madinat macclesfield* [Text 47.5]

City Macclesfield
'Macclesfield City'

The above example illustrates that the word *Macclesfield* is a proper noun and does not require an article as it is already definite. Therefore, the definite article *al-* is not added to both nouns. However, when the second noun is not a proper noun and is not preceded by *al-*, the first noun is not considered to be definite.

Shakelen Sehei [Text 4-2]

Form healthy
'A healthy form'

Loghah jadedah [Text 7-4]

Language new
'A new language'

maSder ra?e9 [Text 7-11]

Resource fantastic
'A fantastic resource'

Although both English and Arabic have construction states, a point of disagreement can be noted in the following example:

(73) **English:** *The key of the door of the house.*

(74) **Arabic:** *muftah bab al- beit.*

Key door the house.
'The key of the door of the house'

The above example demonstrates that English allows the use of the definite article with every noun in such a structure whereas Arabic does not.

3.6.2.3 Indefiniteness and Nunation (Tanwiin) in Arabic

Although the definite article *al-* is visible in Arabic script, the indefinite article does not have an overt form to indicate its presence. Instead, an indefinite marker is considered a zero article that can be pronounced with the suffix *-n* (Nunation), it is pronounced *Nuun* sound and it is not written. Nunation is a morphological marker that can be found at the end of both nouns and adjectives. The suffixed *-n* functions as an indefinite marker and can be indicated by means of one of three case endings: the nominative case, the accusative case and the genitive case (Nasr, 1967, p.131, Qafisheh, 1977, p. 115 and Schulz, 2004, p.128). Case endings (Table 3.1) are small marks that are attached to the ends of words to indicate their functions. These case endings can be used with nouns that are used with the definite article and with nouns that have no article markers. For example, the nominative case is pronounced with *u* (*al- kitabu*) when definite and *-un* (*kitabun*) when indefinite, the accusative case ends with *-a* (*al-kitaba*) when definite and *-an* (*kitaban*) when indefinite and the genitive case ends with *-i* (*al-kitabi*) when definite and *-in* (*kitabin*) when indefinite.

Table 3.1 Differences in the use of -n with nouns that are used with the definite article *al-* and nouns which are not

English	Transcription		Arabic	
	Definite	Indefinite	Definite	Indefinite
Nominative <i>al-rafa9</i> Subject	(75) <i>al- kitab<u>u</u></i> The book 'the book'	<i>kitab<u>un</u></i> book 'A book'	الكتاب	كتاب
Accusative <i>an-nasb</i> Object	(76) <i>ana ?qra'a al- kitab<u>a</u></i> I read the book 'I read the book.'	<i>Ana ?aqra'a kitab<u>an</u></i> I read book. 'I read a book.'	انا اقرأ الكتاب	انا اقرأ كتابا

Genitive <i>al-je</i> Possive	(77) <i>Ana ?9Taitoha al- kitabi</i> I gave her the book 'I gave her the book.'	<i>ana ?9Taitoha kitab<u>in</u></i> I gave her book. 'I gave her a book.'	انا اعطيتها الكتاب	انا اعطيتها كتاب
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However, these case endings are not used in normal speech except when reading the Quran and in children's educational books. Therefore, these three cases are heard *al- kitab* (the book) not *al-kitabu* (i.e. without the use of the suffix -n) and *Ana ?a9Taituha kitab* (I gave her a book) not *ana ?aTaituha kitaban*. Hence, the claim that Arabic has an indefinite article is hardly tenable. According to Badawi et al. (2004, p. 32), the Nunation was not primarily an indefinite marker in Arabic.

Similarly to the view of Badawi et al., many grammarians (e.g. Hawas, 1986, Fehri, 1993, Swan and Smith, 2001, White, 2003) believed that Arabic has no indefinite article as it is not overtly written as the definite article *al-* and that the case endings can be used with both definite and indefinite markers. Furthermore, Lyons (1999, p. 93) claimed that Arabic is a language that has an overt definite article, although it does not have a real indefinite article.

It can be concluded that the case endings, which are used as indefinite markers, appear only in formal speech and while reading the Quran. Hence, the short texts that the researcher used in comparing the English / Arabic article systems contain no case endings. In other words, the indefinite article is not present in the texts and based on the views of the grammarians mentioned above, Arabic does not have an indefinite article and considered zero. The example below demonstrates this point of view.

(78) *The wake of a violent revolt* [Text 35.3]

This sentence is the equivalent in Arabic to:

(79) *9asheyat thawra 9anefah*
Wake revolt violent

Generally, the above discussion demonstrates that English has one definite article, an indefinite article (i.e. a(n)) and the zero article (i.e. Ø) whereas Arabic has two definite determiners: the definite article *al-* and definiteness through addition. It does not have an indefinite article like English. Since both languages have some differences in the form of their article systems, it is necessary to consider their uses, in order to ascertain more about what points they share and the points that they do not share.

3.7 The Uses of the Definite Article in English/ Arabic

3.7.1 Non-Generic Uses (Specific Uses)

Both languages have some similarities and differences with regard to the use of the definite article.

3.7.1.1 Anaphoric Reference

1. Direct Anaphoric Reference

In English, when a noun is mentioned twice in a sentence, the definite article *the* precedes the noun the second time it is mentioned. In other words, direct anaphoric use involves repetition of a noun that has been mentioned for the first time earlier in a discourse with an indefinite article.

(80) *A little boy loved to come and play around it every day. The little boy had grown up.*

[Text 1.3]

The example above indicates that the sentence begins with ‘a little boy’ (i.e. indefinite article) then in the second part, commences with ‘the little boy’ (i.e. definite article). The reason is because the phrase ‘the little boy’ is mentioned for the second time in the sentence, and the occurrence of *the* depends on the first noun mentioned in a sentence.

2. Indirect Anaphoric Reference

This refers to a reference which becomes a part of the hearer’s knowledge indirectly. There is an association from what was mentioned in a sentence on the basis of the hearer’s knowledge.

(81) *She went to the merchant’s home and knocked at the door.* [Text 23.8]

(82) *Will passengers please remain seated until the aircraft has come to a complete halt?*
[Text 40.8]

The above examples demonstrate that both the speaker and hearer recognize which ‘door, aircraft’ is being talked about since the nouns ‘home, passengers’ which are mentioned in the first parts of the sentences (i.e. anaphora) have *a door* and *passengers* and therefore the words ‘*door* and *aircraft*’ are preceded by the definite article *the*.

Similar to English, Arabic has a direct and indirect anaphoric reference called *al-* *Al-9ahdeyah*. There are two kinds: *al-9ahd al-thikri al-mubašer* (direct anaphoric reference), and *al-9ahd ath-thikri al-gheir mubašer* (indirect anaphoric reference).

3. Al-9ahd al-thikri al-mubašer (Direct Anaphoric Reference)

As in English, the Arabic definite article *al-* can be used to specify a noun which is previously mentioned in a sentence (i.e. previous specification). The occurrence of *al-* can be used with

nouns mentioned for the second time because they are related to nouns which have been mentioned before in a sentence.

- (83) *Walad ṣagheer yoHubo al-la9eb Hawlaha. Al-walad 9aad.* [Text 1.3]
Boy little love the play around it. The boy came back.
'A little boy loved to come and play around it. The boy came back.'

4. Al-9ah al-thikri al-gheir mubašer (Indirect anaphoric reference)

Arabic allows the use of the definite article with nouns that have a relationship with nouns mentioned earlier in a discourse.

- (84) *Dhahabat ella beith al-tajer wa Taraqet ella al-bab.* [Text 23.8]
Went she to home the merchant and knocked on the door.
'She went to the merchant's home and knocked at the door.'

3.7.1.2 Cataphoric Reference

In English, the cataphoric reference of (the) has a forward reference to a post modifying prepositional phrase or a relative clause. It means the definite phrase is based on what follows the head noun.

- (85) *Due to the size of the Arabic markets* [Text 6.24]
(86) *The elderly who contribute to Medicare* [Text 3.8]
(87) *The copyrights of the composer* [Text 12.7]
(88) *The rest of the day* [Text 41.3]

Unlike English, the cataphoric use of *al-* in Arabic functions differently. When two nouns are mentioned in the construct state (as discussed earlier), *al-* is not needed with the first noun as it extracts its definiteness from the noun that follows. Hence, the first noun is considered definite even without the use of *al-*.

- (89) hajim al-aswaaq al-arabeya [Text 6.24]
size the markets the Arabic

‘Due to the size of the Arabic markets’

- (90) *Nehayat Hoqbat quat al- dolar* [Text 36-4]
End era strong the dollar
‘The end of the strong-dollar era’

However, when the noun which is in a state of construction is preceded by an adjective, (i, e, the noun and adjective) require *al-*. The following example illustrates.

- (91) *Al- logha al- rasmeyah li al- jaz?er* [Text 6.5]
The language the official of al- Jaz?er.
‘The official language of Algeria’

Moreover, the case with relative clauses in Arabic is different from that in English. Several grammarians (e.g. Al Daimi and Abdel-Amir, 1994; Fehri, 1993; Elghamry, 2004; Sarko, 2009) believe that relative clauses agree with their head noun in terms of definiteness. When the head noun is modified by *al-*, the relative clause must contain a definite article *al-*, and when the head noun is modified by a zero article, the relative clause must be zero. The following examples (from Sarko, 2009, p. 52, 53) demonstrate this as shown below.

- (92) *?oridu ?n aštari al-kitaaba al- lathi abHatu 9nhu menthu moda*
I want in buy the book the that I look for some time
‘I want to buy the book that I look for some time.’

- (93) *I ?orihu ?n aštari kitab abHatu 9nhu menthu moda.*
I want in buy book I look for sometime
‘I want to buy a book I look for some time.’

- (94) **?oridu ?n aštari al-kitab abHatu 9nhu menthu moda.*
I want in buy the book I look for sometime
‘I want to buy the book that she looks for some time.’

- (95) **?oridu ?n aštari kitab al-lathi abHatu 9nhu menthu moda.*
I want in buy book the that I look for sometime

‘I want to buy a book I look for some time.’

However, there is an exception to this rule, which is that of proper nouns. When a proper noun is followed by a relative clause, *al-* cannot be used as shown in the following example.

(96) **al- feladelfia al-lati jonson ya9refoha thorat men awqaat al-eHtelal.* [Text 60.1]
The Philadelphia the which Johnson knows is heritage of times the colonial.
‘The Philadelphia which Johnson knows is a heritage of colonial times.’

(97) *feladelfia al- lati ya9refoha Johnson thorat men awqaat al eHtelal.*
Philadelphia the which know Johnson heritage of times the colonial.
‘Philadelphia which Johnson knows is a heritage of colonial times.’

The above-mentioned sentence (96) is correct without the existence of *al-* before the head noun phrase (i.e. Philadelphia). The use of *al-* with a proper noun in such a situation is not correct in Arabic unless *al-* is part of a noun and not added to it.

(98) *al- amrikan al- ladeen Harabo fi fetnaam* [Text 35.14]
The Americans the who fought in Vietnam
‘Americans who had fought in Vietnam’

The noun *Americans* is written with *al-* because it is part of it. Hence the above sentence is considered correct in Arabic.

Another difference between English and Arabic concerning cataphoric use is that in English one may say:

(99) *The Philadelphia which Mr. Johnson knows very well is a heritage of colonial times.*
[Text 60.1]

According to Quirk et al. (1972, p. 155), the deep structural analysis of the above sentence can be divided into two structures:

- 1) *Philadelphia is a heritage of colonial times.*
- 2) *Mr. Johnson knows Philadelphia very well.*

Such a function is not present in Arabic. The following example demonstrates this:

- (100) **Al-feladelfia al lati ?a9refohah jayedan heya thorat men Libya al-gadeemah.*
The Philadelphia the that I know well it heritage from Libya the ancient.
'The Philadelphia that I know very well is a heritage of ancient Libya.'

In Arabic, the above sentence is correct without the use of *al-* with the noun *feladelfia* 'Philadelphia'.

3.7.1.3 Situational Use

In both languages situational uses can be divided into: immediate situation and large situation.

Immediate Situation Uses (Situational Reference)

In English, the situational reference refers to cases where the reference of (the) is derived from the extra linguistic situation, that is, the speaker and hearer express an idea which has an immediate bearing and close association with what is taking place at the time of speaking.

Visible situational use. An object, which is mentioned, is visible in the situation of utterance. For example, when two persons are having a meal at a table in a restaurant and one asks the other to pass him/her something on the table.

- (101) *Could you pass the salt, please?* [Text 58.5]

- (102) *Will you please help clear the table?* [Text 58.7]

The examples show that both the speaker and hearer know what is being discussed, that of, 'salt' and 'table' which are visible to both persons.

Larger Situational Use. This refers to specific and shared knowledge of a situation between a speaker and a hearer. In specific knowledge, the definite article *the* is restricted to a certain

country, nation or other locative expressions. For example, people in the United States may say *the president spoke this morning* as they know which president they are referring to.

In addition, this can also apply to general knowledge between a speaker and a hearer.

(103) *The sun moves slowly.* [Text 17.3]

(104) *The bird flew high into the sky.* [Text 23.11]

(105) *They landed on the moon* [Text 18.3]

This function of the definite article is the same in both English and Arabic. In Arabic, there are two kinds of situational reference *al-* : *al-9ahd al-Hughuri*, (immediate situational reference) and *al-9ahd al-dihni* (larger situational reference).

Al-9ahd al-Hughuri (immediate situational reference)

This kind of *al-* is used when the object being referred to is in existence at the moment of speaking.

(106) *Hal tasmaH bi tamreer al- melH ?* [Text 58.5]
Could you please pass the salt?
'*Could you pass the salt, please?*'

The example implies that the noun *salt* is mentioned in a situation where both the speaker and hearer recognize what is under discussion with regards to the *salt*.

Al- 9ahd al-thihni (larger situational use)

When a speaker mentions something which contains the definite article *al-*, it enters the mind of the hearer as both know which object they refer to in the discourse. They share knowledge

of an object that may be known worldwide or by all citizens of a nation. In such a case, *al-* must be present in a discourse.

- (107) *raes al- wezarah* [text 22-3]
 Prime the minister
 ‘The prime minister’

In Libya, for instance, everyone knows who the prime minister is; therefore, the phrase must be preceded by a definite article even when there is no a previous mention of it. The kind of definite marker used in this phrase is a genitive construction which is explained earlier in this chapter.

3.7.1.4 The Definite Article with Proper Nouns

In both English and Arabic, proper nouns usually arise with the zero article. However, in some exceptional cases, the definite article can be used before proper nouns as follows:

- 1) English allows the use of the definite article before proper nouns to express partitive meaning of these proper nouns. According to Quirk et al. (1972, p. 203), ‘When the names have restrictive modification to give a partitive meaning to the name, proper names take the (cataphoric) definite article. This means that when a noun is used to refer to a specific situation, *the* can be prefixed to it.

	<u>Unique meaning</u>	<u>partitive meaning</u>	
(108)	<i>In Vietnam</i>	<i>from the North Vietnamese</i>	[Text 35.18]
(109)	<i>at Christmas</i>	<i>during the Christmas of this year</i>	[Text 63.4]

In Arabic, both the unique and partitive meanings are usually expressed by the use of the definite article *al-*.

(110) *Fi al- milad* [Text 62.2]
At the Christmas
'At Christmas'

(111) *Khilala al milad* [Text 62.4]
During the Christmas
'During the Christmas'

2) In English, the definite article can be used before plural proper nouns to refer to a family name.

(112) *The Smiths are having dinner.* [Text 14.1]

In Arabic, when mentioning family names, *al-* can be used with both singular and plural proper nouns.

(113) *al- baghdadi al- maHmudi* [Text 22.4]
The Baghdadi the mahmudi

The noun *al- maHmudi* refers to the family that *al-baghdadi* belongs to. Hence, it should be preceded by *al-*.

3.7.1.5 The Definite Article as Part of a Name

In English, the definite article *the* forms an organic part of the name in some cases:

1) Some countries have the definite article as part of the country's name.

(114) *The United States* [Text 9.9]

(115) *The United Nations* [Text 6.18]

Similar to English, this is also present in Arabic. Many names of countries and cities include the definite article *al-* as part of the name (Schulz, 2004).

(116) *Al- omam al- motaHedah* [Text 6.18]
The Nations the United
'The United Nations'

(117) *Al welayat al- motaHedah* [Text 9.9]
The States the United
'The United States'

However, some names of cities and countries are preceded by the definite article *al-* in Arabic, while in English, they are preceded by the zero article. This point of disagreement may confuse Arab learners of English and lead them to use *the* when it is not required with some names of cities/countries.

(118) *al- jaz:a:?ir* [Text 6.6]
The Algeria
'Algeria'

(119) *al- 9 iraq* [Text 9.2]
The Iraq
'Iraq'

2) The definite article with names of seas and oceans

In English, the definite article can be used with names of seas, mountains and oceans.

(120) *The Mediterranean Sea* [Text 50.4]

(121) *The Red Sea* [Text 27.10]

This is also a frequent case in Arabic. In some cases, the definite article *al-* can be used in both components of the name of the sea especially when the restrictive component is originally an adjective.

(122) *al- baHr al- aHmar* [Text 27.9]
The red the sea
'The Red Sea'

(123) *al- baHir al – mutawaseT* [Text 50.4]
The sea the Mediterranean
'The Mediterranean Sea'

(124) *al- šarq al- awseT* [Text 6.19]
The east the middle
'The Middle East'

Nevertheless, when the restrictive component is a proper noun, the word *baHr (sea)* does not have the definite article *al-*.

(125) *baHr al- 9arab*
Sea the Arab
'The Arab sea'

The reason for this is that the word *baHr* is treated as a component of a genitive structure.

3) With names of rivers

In English, the definite article can be used with names of rivers.

(126) *The River Nile* or *the Nile* [Text 21.1]

In contrast to English, Arabic does not allow the use of *al-* with the word '*river*' *naHer* in construction similar to the ones mentioned above, as in this case it is in a genitive position.

- (127) *Naher Al- neil*
 River the Nile
 ‘The river Nile’

3.7.1.6 The Definite Article with Superlatives

English allows the use of the definite article *the* with a superlative adjective such as the phrase:

- (128) *The biggest problem* [Text 7.3]

- (129) *The longest river in the world* [Text 21-1]

However, in Arabic, the use of the definite article *al-* with nouns that follow superlative adjectives depends on number; if the noun is plural, the definite article *al-* is required; if it is singular, *al-* is not needed.

- (130) *Akbar mushkelah towajeh al- nass* [Text 7.3]
 Biggest problem face the people
 ‘The biggest problem people face’

- (131) *Afdhal al- Torek li momarasat al-reyadhah* [Text 4.11]
 Best the ways to get the practice
 ‘The best ways to get practice’

However, abstract adjectives usually agree with nouns as regards definiteness. If the noun is preceded by a definite article *al-*, the adjective has *al-* as well.

- (132) *al- aswaq al- 9arabyah* [Text 6.24]
 The markets the Arabic
 ‘The Arabic markets’

3.7.2 The Generic Uses of the Definite Article *the*

The generic use of *the* can be used to refer to a class, race, or individuals of a nation. It is regularly used with singular nouns to refer to a generic sense. However, some researchers (e.g. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999) believed that *the* can be used with plural nouns to

refer to a generic reference whereas according to Quirk et al. (1985) and Standwell (1997), (*the* + *plural nouns*) cannot be used to refer to a generic use. They believed that such sentences cannot be used to refer to a generic sense. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 283) provided the following sentences as examples:

(133) *The wolves are carnivorous* ≠ *wolves are carnivorous*.

There are two special cases where *the* can be used with plural noun phrases:

1- Nationality nouns where noun phrases are used to refer to people of a specific nationality or nationalities.

(134) *A strong competition is taking place between the Australians and the Americans.* [Text 8.11]

(135) *Installed by the British in the wake of a violent revolt* [Text 35.1]

2- When adjectives are used as nouns and refer to a group of people.

(136) *The elderly who contribute to Medicare* [Text3.5]

3.7.3 The Definite Article with Names of Institutions

In English, the definite article *the* can be used to refer to a particular use of an institution.

(137) *He went to the school.* (As a parent to see the headmaster)

(138) *They went to the prison.* (To visit somebody)

The examples show that the definite article *the* was used with these nouns as they were not used for their main purposes. They were used, instead, to refer to a particular use.

In Arabic, only the definite article *al-* can be used to refer to the customary use and the particular use of an institution. For example, if a student wishes to inform his/her father about something related to school, he/she might say:

- (139) *aʃʁalu ma bewes9i fi al- madrasah.* [Text 20.1]
I do well in the school
'I do well in school.'

The definite article *al-* is used with the noun *school* which refers to a place where students study, i.e., it is used to refer to its main purpose.

If the parent of the student wishes to meet the teacher of his/her son, he/she would say:

- (140) *saʔthhabu ila al- madrasah.*
I will go to the school
'I will go to the school.'

The example above demonstrates that the definite article *al-* is used with the noun *school* to refer to a particular use. Consequently, Arabic allows the use of *al-* with the names of institutions in both uses; that is, the main use and the particular use.

Additionally, if the sentence *He went to school* is translated literally into Arabic *huwa thahaba ila madrasah*, its indication in Arabic will be different to that in English. Such a sentence may mean that the student went to 'any school' or a school that nobody has heard of. Accordingly, the use of the zero article and the definite article in such a case is not present in Arabic.

As Arabic allows the use of *al-* in both cases whereas English allows it in one case, thus, Libyan students may tend to use the definite article *the* in most cases of such a use.

3.7.4 Names of the Days of the Week

In English, the zero article can be used with days of the week, unless a particular day is referred to in a sentence. For instance, in English one may say:

(141) *On Sunday, the Libyan government announced that the town has been recaptured.* [22-2]

However, in Arabic, days of the week are usually used with the definite article *al-*. Therefore, the definite article is used even when they are modified by an adjective.

(142) *Yawm al-aHad al-Hokoma al-liyeyah a9lanat in al-madenah a9eid eHtelalaha.* [Text 22.2]

Day the Sunday the government the Libyan announced the town is recaptured.
'On Sunday, the Libyan government announced that the town has been recaptured.'

(143) *al- jum9a al- maathiy* [Text 8.12]

The Friday the last

'Last Friday'

3.7.5 The Definite Article with Demonstrative Pronouns

In Arabic, when nouns are preceded by a demonstrative pronoun (singular or plural), the definite article *al-* should be used. (whether the reference is specific or generic)

(144) *hathihi al- seyasah tozawedoka bin- noqood* [Text 3.24]

This the policy provide you with the money

'This policy provides you with money.'

(145) *hathihi al- toqoob fi quloob al- ?khreen* [Text 2.18]

These the holes in hearts the others

'These holes on the hearts of others'

3.7.6 The Logical Use of the

This applies to the use of *the* with certain words. These words are adjectives and postdeterminers ‘whose meaning is inalienably associated with uniqueness: ordinals such as first; general ordinals such as next and last (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 270).

(146) *On the first day* [Text 2.5]

(147) *The sixth spoken language* [Text 6.16]

(148) *The last possible moment* [Text 10.11]

3.7.7. The Use of *the* with Sporadic Reference

The definite article can be used with aspects of mass communication such as *radio*, *television* and *newspaper*.

(149) *I listened to the radio a lot.* [Text 54.4]

3.8 The Uses of the Zero Article in English and Arabic

Arabic has no indefinite marker. It has the definite article *al-* and its absence marks indefiniteness. A point of conflict between Arabic and English is the word *man*, for example, if it is literally translated into Arabic, *man* would be *rajul*. From a semantic point of view each has a different meaning from the other. In Arabic, the word *rajul* corresponds to a *man* in English and the word *man* in English corresponds to the word *al-ensaan* (i.e. *mankind*). The following example demonstrates this.

(150) *Hadehi khaTwah Sagherah li al-ensaan.* [Text 18-4]

This step small for the mankind

‘That is one small step for man.’

3.8.1 The Zero Article with Plural Count Nouns

In English, the zero article can be used to refer to a whole class of an object.

(151) *There is no correlation between currencies and markets.* [Text 36.10]

(152) *Volcanoes erupt violently.* [Text 38.1]

(153) *Plastic products are popular.* [Text 43.18]

The above examples show that the nouns *currencies*, *volcanoes* and *plastic products* refer to a class as a whole as they are referring to generic uses.

Arabic, however, differs from English in this instance as Arabic usually uses *al al-jinseyah* to refer to a generic reference. The above mentioned examples are translated into Arabic as:

(154) *Layes honaka tanaseb bein al- omlaat wa al- aswaaq.* [36.10]
No there correlation between the currencies and the markets.
'There is no correlation between currencies and markets.'

(155) *Al- barakeen tathoru be onef* [Text 38.1]
The volcanoes erupt violently.
'Volcanoes erupt violently.'

(156) *Al mantojaat al- plastik sha?e9a.* [Text 43.18]
The products the plastic popular.
'Plastic products are popular.'

3.8.2 The Zero Article with Mass/ Non-Count Abstract Nouns

In English, the zero article can be used with mass and abstract nouns to indicate an interest in a class.

(157) *There is a lot of gold and silver in my boat.* (A specific use) [Text 10.16]

(158) *Happiness, Sadness, Knowledge, and Love* (A generic use) [Text 10.3]

The above examples show that English allows the use of the zero article with mass nouns (e.g. *gold* and *silver*) and abstract nouns (e.g. *happiness* and *love*) to refer to specific and generic uses.

Moreover, regarding abstract nouns, some can alternate between count and non-count as shown below.

(159) *Plastics are taking the place of glass.* [Text 43.14]

(160) *Drink two glasses of water.* [Text 41.3]

In example (159) the noun *glass* refers to the material by which glass is made, hence, it is a non-countable noun. In example (160) the noun *glass* is a countable noun as it has a similar meaning to a *cup*.

However, Arabic functions differently. The definite article *al-* is used to indicate an interest in a class in both uses (i.e. generic and specific) together with countable and non-countable nouns.

(161) *Al- saedah wa al- Hozen wa Al- ma9refah wa Al- Hob*
The happiness and the sadness and the knowledge and the love
'Happiness, sadness, knowledge, and love'

(162) *Mantojaat al- belastik t?khod makaan al- zojaj.*
Products the plastic take place the glass.
'Plastics are taking the place of glass.'

3.8.3 The Zero Article with Names of Institutions

In English, certain count nouns in prepositional phrases arise with the zero article to refer to the customary use of an institution.

(163) *I do well in school.* (I am a student and go to school to study). [Text 20.1]

(164) *I would like to study something different at university.* [Text 15.1]

In the examples above, the zero article is used with *school* and *university* as they are referred to their main purposes.

3.8.4 The Zero Article with Means of Transportation

In English, the zero article is usually used with phrases that are linked to means of transport with *by*.

(165) *I usually go to school by bus.* [Text 20.6]

(166) *I go to town by bus and come back by train.* [Text 56-1]

However, Arabic functions in a different way; in such contexts the definite article *al-* is always required before the noun. For example,

(167) ?na 9adatan athdabu ila al- madrasah be al- Hafelah. [Text 20.6]
I usually go to the school by the bus.
'I usually go to school by bus.'

3.8.5 The Zero Article with Names of Seasons

In English, names of seasons may occur with the zero article or the definite article.

The former is usually used when referring to seasons in general.

(168) *Summer is the warmest season.* [Text 59.1]

The definite article is used with names of seasons when a particular part of a particular year is referred to.

(169) *The summer of 1971 was usually cool.* [Text 59.1]

The situation in Arabic is different. Arabic always allows the use of *al-* with names of seasons except for the genitive case which is marked by the absence of the definite article *al-*. As presented below:

(170) *Al- Seif ?dfa faSel.*
The summer warmest season
'Summer is the warmest season.'

(171) *Seif 9aam 1971 kana barid.*
Summer year 1971 was nice.
'The summer of 1971 was usually cool.'

But

(172) **Seif ?dfa faSel.*
Summer warmest season
'Summer is the warmest season.'

This Arabic sentence does not have a similar implication as that of its English equivalence because it indicates that *summer is the warmest season* is ambiguous.

3.8.6 The Zero Article with Times of Day and Night

In English, the zero article is used with the times of day and night especially when they are preceded by the prepositions *at*, *by*, *after*, *before*.

(173) *For children troubled with incontinence of urine at night.* [Text 51.1]

However, the definite article can be used with times of day, particularly when they are preceded by the preposition *in*. For example,

(174) *Local time is five thirty in the afternoon.* [Text 40-3]

(175) *I decided to go early in the morning.* [Text 55.3]

In this respect, Arabic allows the use of *al-* with the majority of these times, as demonstrated below:

(176) *Fi al- lail* [Text 51.1]
At the night
'At night'

(177) *Fi aS-SabaH* [Text 55.3]
In the morning
'In the morning'

3.8.7 The Zero Article with Names of Meals

In English, the zero article can be used with names of meals that are served at regular times of the day.

(178) *The Smiths have invited friends for dinner* [Text 14-1]

However, the zero article may not arise if the meal is served on a special or formal occasion. Instead, the definite article or the indefinite article can be used as can be seen in the following examples (From Quirk et al., 1985, p. 279).

(179) *That day, the lunch was served on the terrace.*

(180) *We had a nice dinner, just the two of us.*

Unlike English, Arabic permits the use of *al-* before the names of meals mentioned in a general sense.

(181) *Madha toredu li al- efTaar?* [Text 58.2]
What you like for the breakfast?
'What would you like for breakfast?'

Furthermore, Arabic allows the use of the zero article before names of meals in the following cases:

1- When the name is in the genitive case, i.e.

(182) *Ghada al- malikah*
Lunch the queen
'The lunch of the queen' or 'the queen's lunch'

2- When the name of the meal is followed by a restrictive prepositional phrase, i.e.

(183) *Huwa Haghara ghada 9ala sharaf al- wazeer.* [Text 58.1]
He attended lunch on honor the minister.
'She attended the lunch given in honor of Minister.'

3.8.8 The Zero Article with Illnesses

In English, the zero article can be used with names of illnesses.

(184) *Are you at high risk for diabetes?* [Text 3.29]

(185) *Nausea, vomiting, ulcers, liver damage, and hepatitis* [Text 16.6]

However, the indefinite article can be used with some kinds of diseases (such as cold, fever and temperature) and the definite article with some well-known infectious diseases e.g.

(186) *I have a fever.* [Text 23-4]

(187) *Are you at high risk for a heart-attack?* [Text 3.31]

(188) *I was in bed with the flu last night.* [Text 53.2]

However, in Arabic, *al-* should be used with all names of diseases.

(189) *?mradh methel al- taifood wa al- zaHar wa Al- kolerah* [Text 50-20]
Diseases like the typhoid and the dysentery and the cholera.
'Diseases like typhoid, dysentery and cholera'

3.8.9 Times of the Day

In English, times of the day are used with zero article. For example,

(190) *At ten fifty six Neil took the first step.* [Text 18.4]

Unlike English, Arabic allows the use of *al-* when referring to times of the day.

(191) *fī al ʿašsherh wa sit wa khamsoon* [Text 18.4]
At the ten and six wa fifty
'At ten fifty six.'

3.8.10 The zero Article with Non- Generic Meaning

In English, the zero article is sometimes used to refer to particular situations without implying generic reference.

(192) *Students are required to pay their fees before the beginning of the term.* [Text 57.2]

The above example does not refer to students in a generic sense. Instead, it refers to students in a particular school or university to whom this notice is issued.

This does not apply in Arabic as in similar contexts the definite article *al-* is always positioned before the noun.

(193) *Al- Talabah molzameen be dafa9 al- rosoom qabela bedayat al- feSel.*
The students required to pay the fees before beginning the faSel.
'Students are required to pay their fees before the beginning of the term'

The noun phrase '*the students*' in the above example refers to a specific group of students in a certain educational institution. Moreover, the occurrence of the noun *students* without the definite article *al-* renders it an ungrammatical sentence.

3.8.11 The Zero Article With the Words Town/ Home

In English, the zero article can be used after a preposition when reference is made to a town near which the speaker lives and he/she is familiar with.

(194) *Last week we were at town.* [Text 56.2]

In a similar manner, the word *home* can be used with the zero article.

(195) *You can go home.* [Text 23.3]

In Arabic, on the other hand, *al-* should be used before the words ‘*town*’ and ‘*home*’. This *al-* is called /*al- al-thihneyah*/ which indicates something known to both speaker and hearer. The above mentioned examples are translated into Arabic as:

(196) ?*al- esboo9 al- madhei konah fi al- baldah.* [Text 56.2]
The last the week were we in the town
‘Last week we were at town.’

(197) *Yomkoneka al- dhahab ila al-beit* [Text 23.3]
You can the going to the home.
‘You can go home.’

3.8.12 Miscellaneous Uses of the Zero Article

In English, the zero article can be used with a variety of phrases. This kind of use can be termed ‘terminological use’.

(198) *By chance* [Text 23.6]

(199) *By land* [Text 19.4]

(200) *To bed* [Text 55.1]

In Arabic, *al-* should be used with such phrases. For example,

(201) *Bi al- Sodfah* [Text 23.6]

By the chance

‘By chance’

3.9 Uses of the Indefinite Article in English

According to Quirk et al. (1985), the indefinite article *a/an* can be defined as definiteness.

A/An are used with singular count nouns to refer to specific and generic references.

3.9.1 Specific Uses

1. Non Referring Uses of the Indefinite Article

In English, the indefinite article has a descriptive role when it is associated with the complement function in a sentence.

(202) *There was a huge apple tree.* [Text 1.1]

(203) *Art is a healthy form of expression.* [Text 4.1]

(204) *It is a special occasion.* [Text 5.1]

2. The Indefinite Article with Descriptive Exclamations

The indefinite article in English can be used for descriptive exclamation.

(205) *What a strange incident I witnessed!* [Text 23.10]

3. The Indefinite Article and the Numeral One

Historically, the indefinite article *a/an* is derived from the unstressed form of one. Even in modern English, there are some contexts in which *a/an* can be substituted by a numeral one (Perlmutter, 1970 and Quirk et al., 1985).

(206) *There was a boy.* [Text 2.1]

(207) *There was one boy.*

(208) *A packet of sugar*

(209) *One packet of sugar* [Text 14.4]

Perlmutter (1970, p. 234) states that “English has a rule which obligatorily converts unstressed proclitic ‘one’ to ‘an’ with the final ‘n’ later dropping before a consonant”.

Hence, the rules that apply to the distribution of numeral one can also be implemented to the distribution of the indefinite article. Perlmutter (1970) supported this view by providing rules that both the numeral ‘one’ and the indefinite article share:

- 1) Both the indefinite article and the numeral ‘one’ cannot be used before plural nouns.

(210) *there are one books on the table.

(211) *there are a books on the table.

- 2) Both the indefinite article and numerals cannot be used before non-count nouns.

(212) *a blood

(213) *one blood.

The above examples are not grammatical as the indefinite article cannot be used with non-count nouns and since it is derived from the numeral *one*, the latter (i.e. the numeral *one*) cannot be used with non-count nouns.

- 3) Both the indefinite article and numerals may occur with mass nouns when a speaker

Intends a particular semantic reference (e.g. a kind of).

(214) *A coffee* (to refer to a cup of coffee) [Text 58.4]

(215) *One coffee* (to refer to one cup of coffee)

(216) *Two coffees* (to refer to two cups of coffee)

As *a* is derived from the numeral one, then the rule applies as well, thus, the phrase *a coffee* is grammatical since it replaces the numeral *one*.

However, an exception to the assumption that the indefinite article is derived from the numeral one arises when the indefinite article is used to refer to generic sense; in this instance, *one* cannot be substituted by *a/an* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 274).

(217) *A tiger can be dangerous.*

If *a* is replaced by *one*, the sentence will not bear any generic reference and it may refer to a specific tiger.

4. The Indefinite Article in Measuring Phrases

The indefinite article can be used before phrases of time and measurements.

(218) *We left them for half an hour.* [Text 56.2]

(219) *You took a month or six months ago.* [Text 7.27]

(220) *A hundred Ottoman liras* [Text 23.7]

(221) *Once a year* [Text 49.2]

5. Use of A/An When a Referent is Mentioned for the First Time

A/an can be used when a referent is not identified in the shared knowledge of speaker and hearer, when the referent is not mentioned previously.

(222) *Due to an accident* [Text 3.7]

(223) *A retailer is the person who sells goods in small quantities.* [Text 42.1]

6. The Use of A/An in Vacillation Cases

This refers to some situations in which the presence or absence of a/an does not affect the sentence.

(224) *The man worked as (a) woodcutter.* [Text 32.1]

The use of the indefinite article in the above example is optional.

3.9.2 Generic Uses

The indefinite article *a/an* can be used to refer to a generic sense. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 281) stated that *a/an* can be used to refer to “any representative member of the class”.

However, *a/an* cannot be used to attribute properties that have a reference to the class as a whole (Quirk et al. 1985). Similarly, Chesterman (1991, p.34) believed that generic uses of articles have different distributions as illustrated in the following examples:

(225) a-The bear is becoming extinct.

b-Bears are becoming extinct.

c-*A bear is becoming extinct.

Example c cannot be used to refer to a generic sense as the predicate (which is becoming extinct) cannot be applied to one bear in such a situation).

The differences between the English and the Arabic article systems can be summarized in terms of their uses in the following table (Table 3.2). The first part of the table shows the situations where English allows the use of *the/zero* and Arabic allows only *al-*. The second part reveals the situations in which English allows the zero article and Arabic allows only the definite article *al-*. The third part explains the situations in which both languages allow the use of the definite articles: *the* in English and its equivalent *al-* in Arabic.

Table 3.2 Summary of differences between English and Arabic article system

English the or Ø = Arabic al-	English Ø = Arabic al-	English the = Arabic al-
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1- Institution 2- Meals 3- Names of seasons 4- Illnesses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1- Days of the week. 2- Means of transport 3- Parallel structure 4- Certain names of cities/countries. 5- Times of the day 6- Count nouns when referring to a generic sense. 7- Mass nouns 8- Miscellaneous 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1- Anaphoric use of the 2- Logical use of <i>the</i> 3- Non-referring use of the indefinite 4- Some names of seas/oceans

To conclude, the overview of the article systems in English and Arabic makes it clear that both languages vary in form and range of uses. Such variations may cause difficulties for Libyan learners of English in relation to learning the English article system. This issue will be discussed in greater depth below.

3.10 Results and Predications of the Comparison

The above comparison showed that English and Arabic share some similarities and differences with regard to the articles in terms of their forms and uses. English, For instance, has one

definite article (the), whereas in Arabic there are the definite article *al-* and appending a noun to another noun (addition). In addition, English has the indefinite article (*a/an and zero*), while the Arabic equivalent is zero. In English, the indefinite article can be used to express a class of an entity such as *a lion is an animal*. In Arabic, however, the English indefinite article in such a sentence is superseded by the definite article *al-* as in: *al-assad Haywaan*, (the lion animal), ‘*A lion is an animal*’.

According to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, making a comparison between the two languages may assist researchers to predict the process of learning learners’ errors before they are made and as a result, prepare successful teaching materials. In addition, the differences between the two languages may cause problems and result in errors, which can be attributed to mother tongue interference. Consequently, depending on the CAH, a variety of potential difficulties for Libyan learners of English can be predicted. A comparison between English and Arabic in terms of the Article system was conducted and resulted in the prediction of some difficulties which can be summarized as follows:

1- The absence of the indefinite article in Arabic may be problematic for Libyan learners of English. A Libyan learner of English is likely to omit the indefinite article. For example, a Libyan student may write sentences such as **this is book*, **she is teacher*. (See section 3.6.2.3).

Moreover, a Libyan learner of English may confuse *a* and *an*, and is more likely to omit the indefinite article than the definite article (See section 3.6.1.1). One would expect Libyan students to write the following sentences:

**This is a orange.*

**I saw him a hour ago.*

2- As Arabic differs from English in that Arabic does not have a phonologically overt exponent of indefiniteness, Libyan learners of English, may tend to use the indefinite article whenever the definite article is not used (See section 3.6.1.1).

** I want a rice.*

** There are a bags.*

3- Another complexity that Libyan learners may experience as regards the definite article is the interference from the Arabic genitive construction (See section 3.6.2.1). For example, a Libyan student may write sentences such as:

**Car the teacher*

‘The car of the teacher’

**Rest the day*

‘The rest of the day’

Such errors may be very common amongst many Libyan students who tend to transfer this rule from their native language (i.e. Arabic) to refer to a genitive construction.

4- In certain situations in English (i.e. idiomatic expressions) no article is needed as in the phrases *in bed* and *by chance* (See section 3.8.12). However, the definite article *al-* is usually required in Arabic in similar situations. For example, a Libyan student may write phrases such as:

** By the chance*

** Go to the bed at 9:30*

5- The definite article *al-* is required in Arabic with names of the week, names of meals, certain names of towns/cities and countries (See sections 3.7.4, 3.8.7 and 3.8.11). For that

reason, when writing an English sentence, a Libyan student may add *the* to such names.

For instance, a Libyan student may write the following sentences:

** I visited the India the last the year.*

**The breakfast, the lunch, and the supper are basic meals in the Kuwait.*

** I was in the Cairo the last the Saturday.*

6- As Arabic allows the use of *al-* with a post modifying relative clause and does not allow it with a post modifying prepositional phrase, a Libyan student may omit *the* when referring to prepositional phrases in English (See section 3.7.1.2). A Libyan student may thus write phrases such as:

** Size of the Arabic markets*

** Price of the goods*

7- Libyan students are likely to use *the* with names of institutions when referring to their main purposes (See section 3.8.3). For instance, a Libyan student may write:

** I do well in the school.*

**Doctor John goes to the hospital every day.*

8- Libyan learners of English may also tend to use the definite article with mass/abstract nouns and plural countable nouns which are used to refer to a generic sense (See section 3.8.2). They may well write the following sentences:

**the life is beautiful*

**the happiness, the love, and the knowledge are all feelings*

**I like the bananas.*

**the Dogs are useful to the man.*

9- In English, when writing words preceded by the preposition *by* and that they indicate a means of transportation, the zero article is required, whereas in Arabic, such words are confined to the definite article *al-* (See section 3.8.4). For this reason, a Libyan student may insert the definite article into a sentence and write

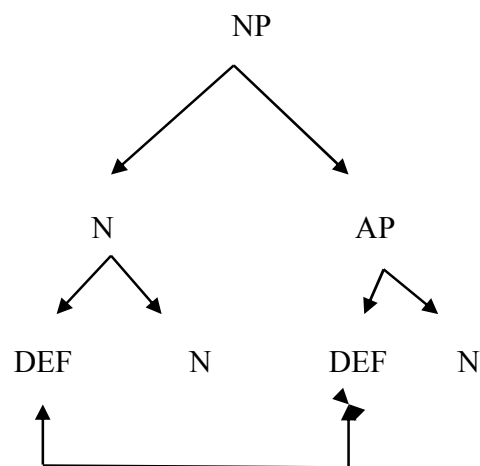
**I go to the school by the bus.*

10- As abstract adjectives agree with nouns in definiteness in Arabic, a Libyan learner of English is likely to insert the definite article *the* to both adjectives and nouns in English (See 3.7.1.6). For example, a Libyan learner may write phrases like

** The respective the mother*

** The Libyan the government*

The following tree demonstrates the structure of the noun phrase *the respective mother* in Arabic



Al- oum al-moHtaremah

The mother the respective

‘The respective mother’

11- The use of the definite article with superlative adjectives is obligatory in English, but the situation is different in Arabic (See section 3.7.1.6). The use of *al-* with the superlative adjectives is allowed only with plural nouns. Singular nouns that are preceded by a superlative adjective can be used only with the zero article, therefore, no use of *al-* is required. Such a difference between English and Arabic may lead a Libyan learner to write sentences like

** John is best student in my class.*

** Tipesti Hotel is oldest building in Benghazi.*

12- A number of nouns (e.g. information, advice) are classified as non-countable in English and countable in Arabic (See section 3.8.2). This mismatch may be problematic and makes a Libyan learner's task more complex, because she/he needs to learn both the article system and noun distinctions. A Libyan learner is likely to write sentences such as:

**I have a good news.*

**I gave him an information.*

Moreover, some nouns in English can be countable and non-countable. This depends on the meaning and context in which they are mentioned. Such a function may confuse a Libyan learner for he/she may not identify what the mentioned noun refers to. For instance, a Libyan learner may be expected to write a sentence as follows:

**the windows are made of the / a glass.*

Additionally, by comparing the use of the article systems in both languages, it can be concluded that Libyan learners of English are liable to use *the* instead of \emptyset , and overuse the definite article *the* when no article is required. This result was based on the frequency check that was used to compare the article systems in both languages using a collection of authentic

texts. The comparison revealed that there are 265 uses of the zero article in English used with the definite article *al-* in Arabic. As a result, it can be predicted that such a frequency may hinder Libyan learners to effortlessly master the use of the zero article. The following table, (Table 3.3) illustrates the results of the comparison (i.e. the collection of authentic texts) of English and Arabic uses of the article systems in both languages. For further details about the collection of texts, see appendix E.

Table 3.3 The Results of Comparing the Uses of the Definite Article in English and Arabic

English Arabic	Definite The	Indefinite a/an	Zero Ø
Definite article <i>al-</i>	114	10	265
Definite through addition	36	5	33
Zero Ø	10	69	49

Moreover, the comparison indicates that 114 uses of the definite article in English corresponded to the definite article *al-* in Arabic. Therefore, the use of the English definite article may not be overused or underused as it shares some similarities with the use of the Arabic definite article *al-*.

To conclude, the aforementioned potential difficulties were predicted by comparing the article systems in English and the article system in the learners' first language (i.e. Arabic). This study intends to investigate whether the differences between the two languages in the use of articles can be reliable indicators of any interference in the Arabic language. In other words, can errors be accounted for through analysis of differences between the learners' L1 and L2?

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the researcher used a collection of authentic texts to establish the similarities and differences between the two languages and predict the errors that

Libyan learners of English may make. The following paragraph provides more information about the texts used in this study.

3.11 Description of the Authentic Texts Used in This Study

The data were collected in 2011 and consist of sixty pieces of short texts; 32 of them are written in English and 28 in Arabic. The total number of words in the English articles is 11,972, whereas in Arabic, there are 9,718. The English articles are coded with the letter *E* and the Arabic ones with the letter *A*. The examples are from different fields, (e.g. fable stories, political texts, daily conversations, medical texts, prescriptions and instruction guides); some were obtained from websites and others from different catalogues and books. In addition, all metadata, (e.g. the original language of every article and description of articles) about the authentic texts is provided in appendix E so that the reader and other future studies may benefit from it.

On the whole, some linguists, previously mentioned in the first section of the chapter, (e.g., Christophersen, 1939; Hawkins, 1978; Carlson, 1977) have made attempts to describe and classify the article system. Others, (e.g., McEldowney, 1977; Master, 1994) have proposed pedagogical grammars to simplify the instruction of the articles. Moreover, some researchers (e.g. Berry, 1991 and Master, 1997) have investigated various pedagogical implications for teaching the article system to examine which one has a positive effect in assisting foreign learners to learn it. Some of these pedagogies are dealt with below.

3.12 Pedagogical Implications on Teaching the English Article System

Second language learners may face problems learning the English article system because of the considerable amount of rules the student is obliged to recognize and the exceptions which

apply to them. Some languages such as Arabic contain article systems, but are not used in the same manner as in English. As a result, the English article may be challenging to explain. Therefore, a careful selection of teaching strategies is essential in order to achieve success.

A number of linguists (e.g. Beaumont and Galaway, 1994 and Master, 1994) believed that formal instruction is required to assist L2 learners to become proficient in the article system. Master (1994, p. 248) concluded that “language instruction is beneficial if that instruction is based on a systematic presentation of the material, that is, when the material is presented in a hierarchy of manageable segments with continuous building on what has been taught before.” Multiple options have been proposed for teaching the English article system and making its acquisition accessible to L2 learners.

A pedagogical grammar technique for teaching the English article system was produced by McEldowney (1977) who proposed a generalized grammar method of the English article system that contains four elements: *a*, *the*, *-s* and *some*. To simplify the grammar of the English article, she ensured the significance of establishing “*one form for one function*”. The presence or absence of the articles depends on four types of meanings:

- a) Whether the NP is general or particular,
- b) Whether the NP is any or special,
- c) Whether the NP is countable or uncountable, and
- d) Whether the NP is singular or plural.

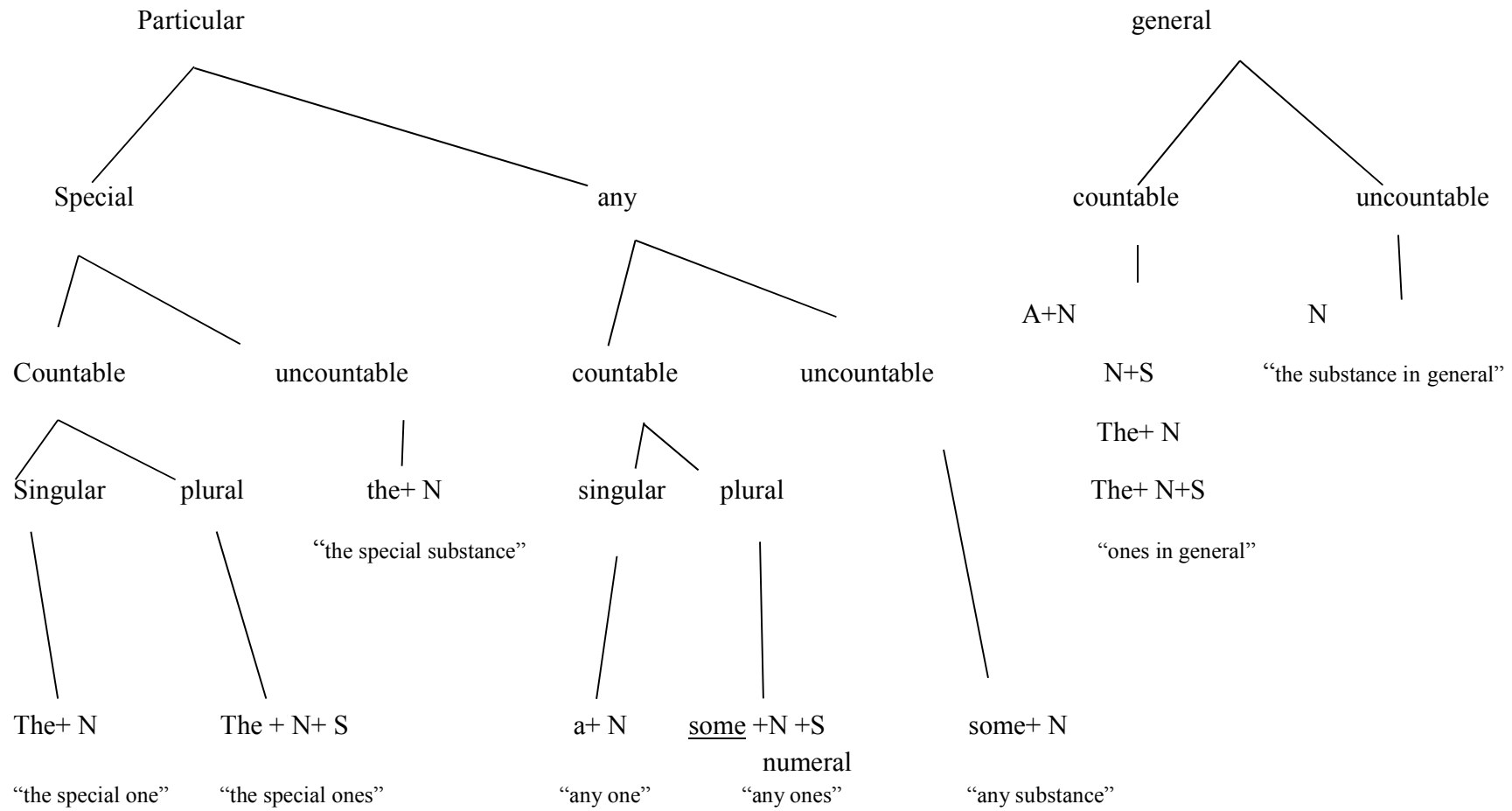
Based on the above taxonomy, she produced four further stages (Table 3.4) to teach the article system, beginning with singular countable nouns, followed by plurals, uncountable

nouns and generic nouns. Every phase deals with three basic notions: *any* (a, some), *special* (the), and *general* (-s, and the). The following table demonstrates this as follows:

Table 3.4 Stages of the Article Usage by McEldowney, 1977, p. 110

Stage I	A+ Noun “anyone” The + Noun “the special one” Noun + S
Stage II	Some + Noun + S “any ones” The + Noun + S “the special ones”
Stage III	Noun “the substance in general” Some + Noun “any substance” The + Noun “the special substance”
Stage IV	Numeral + Noun + S “any numbered ones” A+ Noun The + Noun The + Noun+ S “ones in general”

McEldowney’s proposal is not perfect as some parts and the four teaching strategies may confuse learners in some ways and furthermore, the concepts ‘particular’ and ‘special’ may confuse learners. McEldowney’s taxonomy of the English article usage can be summarized as follows: (McEldowney, 1977, p. 99)



It appears that a distinction is required in case learners confuse a particular referent with a special reference. Moreover, the connotation of *a* and *some* with *any*, and *the* with *special* is not appropriate in sentences such as:

(226) *a. I met a friend in the park yesterday.*

b. She has some toys in her hand.

In sentence *a* ‘*the friend*’ mentioned is not “any one”; the individual who the speaker met on the way is a “special one”. In *b*, based on McEldowney’s definition, *the toys* are not equivalent to ‘any toys’ but, instead, they are specific toys.

Another proposal for teaching the English article system was produced by Whitman (1974, p. 253). He assumed that the English article structure is “a sequence of quantification and determination rather than a choice between specific and unspecific” and outlined six sequential steps for teaching the English article system. His suggestion was based on two factors: ease of explanation and frequency of occurrence:

1. Quantity (singular/ plural nouns) (This is a book. These are three books)
2. Generic plural (All apples are red. Apples are red).
3. Non-count nouns (count nouns vs. non-count nouns). (A lot of books/ a lot of water).
4. Determiners (which/ NP question; second mention). (The book which I bought is good).
5. Quantity and determiner. (One of the books on that table is red).
6. Generic articles. (A mouse is smaller than a cat. The mouse is smaller than a cat. Mice are smaller than cats).

Whitman's suggestion reveals that he introduces quantity first because of the ease of 'the concept of counting' rather than the concept of '*known groups*'. He presents the generic plural because of its relation to the concept of quantity. Whitman produces the generic plural in step 2 and generic articles in step 6 because generics *a* and *the* are not commonly found and are best taught at a later stage.

Master (1990) proposed a binary system to simplify the rules (Table 3.5). This dichotomy differs from the traditional taxonomy of article use in terms of specificity, definiteness, countability and number. In his binary system, article use is based on a contrast between *identification*, (which is marked by *the*) and *classification*, (which is marked by *a*, \emptyset). Classification includes the features [-definite] [-specific] and identification contains [+definite] [+specific].

Table 3.5 Master's Aspects of Classification and Identification (1990, p. 741)

Classification (<i>a</i> , \emptyset)	Identification (<i>the</i>)
Count/ non-count	
First mention	Subsequent mention
	Ranking adjectives (e.g. first, second etc.)
	Shared knowledge
Defining post modification	Limiting post modification
Partitive of- phrase	Descriptive of- phrase
Intentional vagueness	
General characteristics	
Existential <i>there</i> and <i>it</i>	
	Generic <i>the</i>
Classifies proper nouns	Proper nouns (\emptyset and <i>the</i>)
Idiomatic phrases	Idiomatic phrases

Moreover, Frodesen and Eyring (2003, p.78) provide a table to explain what Master means by *one form/one function* correspondence.

Table 3.6 One Form/One Function Correspondence of Master's Binary System

Classification	Identification
[-definite][-specific] Illustrates a kind, class or group	[+definite] [+specific] Illustrates a specific feature
A → singular noun (227) I need a scarf. An → singular noun (228) John needs an apple. Θ → non-count noun (229) We like music	The → singular noun Plural noun non-count noun (230) The scarf I bought is nice. (231) The apple Johan ate is not washed. (232) The music we listened to was nice.
Answers the question <i>What?</i> What do you need? A scarf	Answers the question <i>Which?</i> Which scarf? The scarf that I bought.

Master (1990, p. 466) provides the following examples to demonstrate the characteristics of definiteness and specificity.

(233) a. [-definite] [+specific] *A tick entered my ear.*

b. [-definite] [-specific] *A tick carries a disease.*

c. [+definite][+specific] *The computer is down today.*

d. [+definite] [-specific] *The computer is changing our lives.*

Master then combined these two features into one feature, that is, identification. A noun can be identified (+identified) or classified (-identified). In A and B 'something that can be classified as a tick' is the subject. In C and D the noun *computer* is identified not classified. This schema reveals that a noun (countable/uncountable, singular/plural), which is marked for identification would automatically be used with *the* whilst a noun which lacks identification needs either *a* or *the zero article*.

Master (1994) also drew up another proposal. He maintained that the linguistic features of the usage of the articles includes specificity, definiteness, count and number and produced a hierarchical sequence of six questions which need to be asked before choosing a suitable article to be used.

- 1- Is the NP countable or uncountable,
- 2- Is the NP definite or indefinite,
- 3- Is the NP premodified or postmodified,
- 4- Is the NP specific or general,
- 5- Is the NP common or proper, and
- 6- Is the NP in an idiomatic phrase or not.

Master believed that these six questions may affect article choice. He conducted a study using this schema to teach the English article system to foreign language learners. The findings revealed that the students who were taught from this schema used articles significantly in contrast to students who were not taught from the schema. Master (1994, p. 274) believed that this instruction was a means of “accelerating that acquisition by making students aware of and increasing their conscious control of the way the article works.”

However, Master’s proposal was criticized for various reasons. First, readers might not explicitly be aware of what *definite*, *indefinite*, *zero* and the notions of *genericity*, *definiteness*, *count* and *non-count* might mean. Second, the six questions that he proposed may not help learners determine the correct use of the appropriate article. For example, how could a student make a decision about whether a noun phrase is part of an idiomatic phrase or not? Moreover, although a learner may identify an idiomatic phrase, he/she might be incapable of choosing *a*, *the* or \emptyset before the noun phrase. Additionally, although Master (1994) claimed that the results

of his study showed significant findings in favour of the group instructed through the six questions, these results were not based on the long-term effects of pre and post-tests.

All of the aforementioned suggestions offer practical ways of theorizing the article system and the choice of a suggestion will depend on the viewpoint and purpose. There is a theoretical description of the article use and a pedagogical framework. Each method might be valuable to language instructors in particular contexts.

Moreover, some points can be made about the above-mentioned proposals. First, all of them include a production of simplicity for teaching the English article system. Some (e.g. Whitman, 1974) emphasized the sequence between form and function; others (e.g. McEldowney, 1977 and Master, 1990) placed emphasis on the correspondence between these two entities, i.e. one form for one function. Second, with regard to categorizing the notions about the semantic function of the articles, some (McEldowney, 1977) focused on a *specific, generic* distinction, whilst others (Master, 1990) focused on *definiteness* (i.e. classification vs. identification). Moreover, all agree that the generic use of the articles should be produced after mastering all other aspects of articles.

Generally, although some researchers (e.g. Doughty and Williams, 1998) believe that complex rules such as the English article system should not take up class time, others such as Master (1994) optimistically believe that systematic instruction may positively facilitate learning if it is performed with care. The present study has adopted Master's proposal (1994) for teaching the article system to first year Libyan students. Despite the criticism surrounding Master's proposal, the researcher believes that it is pedagogically the most sound, as it provides one

general rule, which may be easy to bear in mind and apply: ‘when a noun is definite, use the article *the*, when it is not, use *a*, \emptyset ’. The proposal presents clear rules and is simple to follow. The next chapter will provide more details about the methodology that the present study followed when teaching the English article system to first year students at Garyounis University.

3.13 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has consisted of three parts. The first part provided definitions of definiteness (e.g. uniqueness, familiarity, existence and inclusiveness). It also presented specificity and genericity in both English and Arabic. The second part was a comparison between English and Arabic with regards to the article systems in both languages through their forms and uses. The comparison was based on a collection of authentic texts the researcher used to ascertain additional facts about the similarities and differences between these languages. It was established that both languages have points that they agree with and others they do not. Moreover, the authentic texts assisted the researcher to predict the difficulties that Libyan learners may face in learning the English article system and may assist them to overcome this obstacle. Finally, the third part offers various accounts regarding simplifying the teaching of the English article system and also showed which account the present study has adopted and why.

Chapter 4

Methodology

4.0 Introduction

As mentioned previously, one of the objectives of the present study is to investigate the factors that might affect the process of mastering the English article. One aim is the teaching strategy that instructors follow in their teaching. In the literature, there are various opinions regarding grammar instruction to second language learners. Some advocate formal and systematic attention to isolated linguistic forms through rules, drills and error correction; whilst others reject such techniques and support unconscious natural language exposure similar to children acquiring their native language. A further opinion stated that in order for acquisition to take place, learners should pay attention to linguistic forms and meaning at the same time by providing learners with enhanced input techniques in context to help them notice the target forms.

On account of the endless debate in the literature about teaching strategies that help L2 learners to master grammatical rules, the present study may well make a contribution to the literature by showing which teaching strategy has been successfully adopted in Libya for the teaching of the English article system to first year undergraduate Libyan students at Garyounis University in Benghazi, Libya. In addition, this study may be beneficial to Libyan and foreign teachers teaching English to Libyan students in particular and second language learners in general, and for developers of material. With the assistance of the study, they can find out what types of article errors Libyan students may make and hence, adapt their teaching materials according to their students' needs. The researcher utilises two teaching strategies,

principally, deductive teaching and textual enhanced input with an evaluation of the long-time effects (six months).

This chapter is planned in the following manner. The first part provides a detailed description of the experimental design of this study. It depicts the subjects of the study and the setting in which the study was conducted. The second section delineates the instrument under two subheadings: a multiple choice task and a composition task. The other sections explicate the instructional materials and procedures, data collection and analysis processes.

4.1 Subjects

The research subjects were 90 male and female first-year Libyan students who were majoring in English as a foreign language at Garyounis University, Benghazi, Libya. Each class included 30 students, aged 19-23, who were all native speakers of Arabic. They shared similar linguistic and socioeconomic backgrounds, educational systems and fields of study. The participants belonged to a Libyan Arabic speaking community and started learning English as a foreign language before studying it as their major field at the university. They started learning English as a second language both in the preparatory and secondary stages, with a bare minimum of 6 years of previous English- learning experience. Based on a placement test (TOEFL), their English level was classified as intermediate. The intermediate level was chosen because learners are assumed to have sufficient linguistic knowledge to be able to concentrate on this part of grammar. It was decided to choose 90 participants for the reason that it was a large enough sample group to conduct the statistical analysis with.

Moreover, in order to know and ensure that their language level was similar before teaching the participants and to ensure equality across groups before conducting the course, the

researcher obtained access to their high school certificates and established that they shared a similar language level.

The participants were assigned to 3 groups: two experimental groups, (Deductive teaching DT), (Textual enhanced input teaching TEI) and the control group CG. The participants were invited to take part in this study. Following VanPatten and Cadierno (1993), Master (1994) and Tomlinson and Allen (2000), all instructions were conducted in the participants' regular classrooms, (i.e. the English input that they receive is explicit teaching strategies). All of them were receiving a normal schedule in other academic classes at the same time and the present study provided them with extra classes. The distribution of the three classes into different courses was decided on a random basis. The (DT, TEI) groups received a course on the article system in which they were subject to two different treatments, i.e. an explicit deductive grammar instructional strategy was used with the DT group, whilst an implicit instructional strategy, (textual enhanced input) was used with the TEI group for eight weeks. The control group, CG was exposed to an intensive amount of article usage through the use of authentic texts.

4.2 Instrument

The instruments employed in this study consisted of three tests: a pre-test, post-test1 and post-test 2. The goal of undertaking post-test 2 was to find out whether the proficiency gains from instruction remained stable after six months or not. In order to collect data for the study, two tasks were applied in each test: a multiple choice task and two short composition tasks, (with 100 word limit for each task).

4.2.1 Multiple Choice Task

The multiple choice items were in two forms: isolated sentences and a passage of integrated items. The initial length of the multiple choice items in all tests was 90 and were divided as follows: 30 items (pre-test); 30 (post-test1); 30 (post-test 2) (See Appendix A). Each test was worth 30 points. One point was assigned for each correct answer and incorrect answers were assigned zero points. The three tests were scored by the researcher and the sentences were adapted from Murphy (1998), Master (1994) and Eastwood (1999). As for the test format, in addition to leaving blanks for the missing uses of the relevant article, the researcher provided a choice of three articles, and the participants were instructed to choose the most suitable article. The full task can be seen in Appendix A and below are some examples:

1. Isolated sentences

Version 1

1. Sally goes to _____ by car.
a) work b) a work c) the work
2. Can I have _____ from your bag? Yes, of course.
a) an apple b) some apple c) the apple

Version 2

- 1- I don't know what to do. It's _____ problem.
a) quite difficult b) a quite difficult c) quite a difficult
- 2- _____ is my favourite sport.
a) Football b) A football c) The football

Version 3

1- My friend is_____ person

- a) honest b) an honest c) a honest

2- Let's sing _____ .

- a) song b) a song c) an song

2. Passages of integrated items

Choose 'a', 'an', 'the' or no article to complete the following paragraph

I was born in Seattle, Washington. Seattle is _____city in the United States. It is near _____border of Canada. I live in _____town called Olympia, in _____house in _____street in the countryside. _____street is called “Bear Street” and _____house is beautiful but very old- more than 200 years old! I am _____English teacher at _____school in the centre of _____town.

The multiple choice task was similar, (three versions with the order counterbalanced), so that the researcher ensured that the same test format was used to retest article usage and that the student who had version (1) in the pre-test had different versions (2 or 3) in post-test1 and post-test 2. In other words, each student received three different versions of each test. The following table (Table 4.1) demonstrates this:

Table 4.1The Three Different Versions of the Tests for Each Group

Test \ Group	TEI	DT	CG
Pre-test	Version 1	Version 2	Version 3
Post-test1	Version 2	Version 3	Version 1
Post-test2	Version 3	Version 1	Version 2

The items used in each test included the different possible uses of the definite, indefinite and zero articles.

4.2.2 Composition Task

The main goal of this task was to identify and classify the students' errors with regard to the article system found in their essays. The secondary goal was to investigate the sources of the misuse of the English article system made by Libyan learners in this study. In other words, it aims to find out whether mother tongue interference causes students to make article errors or not.

The participants were given two topics in this task, and were asked to answer them both. The two topics were as follows: 1) *What did you do last weekend?* 2) *Describe one of your relatives.* These questions were presented in the three tests. They were chosen so that the students could write different answers in each test. Although the tasks included written instructions, the researcher provided the participants with verbal instructions in English and Arabic before each task. Moreover, an explanation of unfamiliar words was presented in Arabic, in order to avoid the possibility of a lack of vocabulary having an effect on findings.

4.3 Procedure

In order to conduct this study, verbal permission was gained from the head of the English Department and the Dean of the faculty of Arts at Garyounis University. Subsequently, the learners' instructors were informed of the intact classes, (lessons of this study) for which the course was conducted and a brief description of the study and its aim was provided. Furthermore, the researcher scheduled a time for the three tests.

All groups, (DT, TEI, and CG) received the pre-test on the 13th of November 2011, (the first week of the course). On the 15th of November, the ‘traditional lessons’ started with the DT group.

The enhanced input lessons took place with the TEI group on the 16th of November and the reading passages lessons with the CG took place on November 17th. All groups received a post test1 on January 10th (week nine). The course was planned as follows:

Week 1	Pre-test (13 th , Nov)
Weeks 1-8	Instruction (15 th , Nov)
Week 9	Post-test (10 th , Jan)

The pre-test was given prior to the course so that the results of the test served to ascertain a baseline for all groups. Then, eight weeks later, after the course was completed, post- test1 was given immediately in order to measure proficiency gains; post- test2 was given to the students six months later to establish the long-term effects of the process of learning. A review of the target features was not provided during the intervals between post-test1 and post-test 2.

In each test, the students were given a period of time, (45-50 minutes) to complete the test, sufficient time for each participant to finish the test without rushing but not enough for him/her to think at length about his/her answers. The course lasted for eight weeks with post-test1 in week 9. All the groups had 10 sessions, whilst each group had one session per week.

4.4 Instructional Materials

In order to ensure equality of instruction, the researcher herself undertook the instruction of the three groups.

4.4.1 (DT) Group

The DT group was instructed in accordance with two popular grammar books. They were *Essential Grammar in Use* by Murphy (1998) and *Oxford Practice Grammar* by Eastwood (1999). (See appendix C).

Class instructions were given in English. Explanations in Arabic were given when students faced concepts that were too difficult to understand. The use of Arabic in class was for the sake of teaching effectiveness and to determine that each participant understood what was being taught.

In addition, the instruction of this group was similar to the instruction used in Master's study (1994). The similarities between the present study and Master's study are as follows:

1. Prior to starting the instruction, a hand-out of each lesson concerning the article system was distributed to each student. The group received systematic article instruction throughout the nine-week treatment (pre-test in week 1, post-test 1 in week 9). The article system course concentrated on six main aspects of the system in the following order (from Master, 1994):
 - The **countable - uncountable** and **singular - plural** distinctions.
 - The **indefinite** [a (n), Ø] – **definite** [the] distinction.

- The **premodified - postmodified** distinction.
 - The **specific - generic** distinction.
 - The **common noun - proper noun** distinction.
 - The **idiomatic phrase - nonidiomatic phrase** distinction.
2. The students were taking a normal schedule of other academic classes at the same time.
 3. The instrument used in this study reflected a broad range of article usage.
 4. In each test, the students were provided sufficient time to finish the test but not enough to think at length about the answers. This procedure was undertaken; with the purpose of capture the students' spontaneous response to the aimed grammatical items as much as possible.
 5. Any inquiries from the students about vocabulary were answered.
 6. The treatment of the article system focused on six major aspects of the system. Two weeks were devoted to each of the first 3 distinctions, 3 weeks total to the last three. That is, the group received **countable-uncountable** and **singular-plural** distinctions in the first three lessons. In lesson one the teacher asked her students to reflect on their understanding of countable-uncountable nouns and when they are used. After the warm-up, the materials were distributed to the participants so that they could read through the rules and the examples accompanying each rule. After the deductive presentation and the completion of the lesson, the teacher asked the students to put away their hand-outs and asked the question 'what are the rules we learned today?' She revised the lesson with her students to confirm that they fully understood the question. Finally, the students answered the exercises in groups and the teacher went over their

answers and provided feedback. The same procedure of instruction was followed in approximately the same way in lesson one, as in the other lessons. (See Appendix C for more details of the actual practice).

7. The topics of countable-uncountable nouns, abstract-concrete nouns were presented first in lessons 1 and 2, in order that learners could distinguish between uncountable and abstract nouns and avoid the erroneous association between them. In lesson 3, the difference between *a* and *an* was introduced followed by the anaphoric use of *the* and then its use with unique things. Lesson 4 presented the generic and specific uses of *the*, *zero article* (\emptyset), *a*, and *an*. Lesson 5 focused on fixed expressions (e.g. *in bed*, *at sea*, *by bus*) and in lessons 6 and 7 proper nouns were introduced. Lesson 8 was a revision of all uses of the article system.

Moreover, when the teacher noted that some rules of grammar appeared to be unclear to the participants, she re-taught those particular parts.

4.4.2 (TEI) Group

The TEI group was instructed with a focus on form teaching technique. It was an input enhancement strategy. In order to direct the learners' attention to the target features, (i.e. the English article system), the researcher manipulated the learners' input with the aim of provoking development by deliberately engaging awareness and trying to increase the learners' attention.

To teach this group, authentic texts, (a set of materials in which all articles *a*, *an*, *the* and the zero article \emptyset) were adapted from *English- Online* website⁴. Familiar topics, (e.g. popular science, social, popular medicine and fable stories) were chosen as they are used in everyday life. They were chosen with names of people, things, events and feelings so that students could identify and do not encounter any difficulties in comprehending them.

This set of materials was enhanced visually, including the tasks, to draw learners' attention to the meanings of the articles. The articles (i.e. *A*, *An*, *the*, and \emptyset) were typographically enhanced by highlighting, enlargement and a combination of the techniques: bolding and underlining, in order to increase their salience. There were eight texts with their tasks for eight lessons which were handed out to the students during each lesson. In each text, the definite article *the* was highlighted in green, the indefinite article *a*, *an* were highlighted in pink and the zero article in yellow. In all versions, the entire text was printed in one font type (Verdana) and size (9) except for the articles which were typed in font size (11). The example below demonstrates this:

Babies are good language learners

It is hard to know what babies want. They can't talk, walk, or even point at what they're thinking about. Yet newborns begin to develop language skills long before they begin speaking. And, compared to adults, they develop these skills quickly. People have a hard time learning new languages as they grow older, but infants have the ability to learn any language easily.



⁴ This website is available at <http://www.english-online.at/index.htm> . It was chosen because of the following: (1) It is specially designed for foreign learners of English, (2) the articles are chosen and rewritten carefully in order to be easily understood.

For a long time, scientists have tried to explain how such young children can learn complicated grammatical rules and sounds of a language. Now, researchers are getting a better idea of what's happening in the brains of the tiniest language learners.

A total instructional package of six hours was provided for reading texts and activities, 45 minutes per class. (Samples of the instructional materials can be seen in Appendix B).

In lesson 1 of the course, the teacher provided an overview about the lesson and in order to make them conscious of the target features, she informed her students that the highlighted words were the articles which they have had trouble with and notified them that she would like them to pay attention to how they were used. No information about the highlighted words was provided. When a learner, for example, asked about a highlighted word, the teacher answered the question without any lengthy explanations or rules. The students worked in groups of seven; the teacher divided the text into paragraphs and each group was given a paragraph to read and prepare for the main points to be followed by an explanation to the class. After ten minutes, each member of each group participated in explaining the main points to class. Then the students read the whole text in turn and the teacher asked the students if they needed any help with the text, (e.g. a meaning of a word) before going to the questions. The students worked together and answered the questions based on the text they had read and subsequently the teacher confirmed the answers and provided feedback. The feedback included corrections of the article system when errors were found.

4.4.3 The (CG)

This group served as the control group. The procedure of this group was similar to that of the TEI group. There were eight authentic texts from different fields, the only difference being that

the articles in the texts for this group were not enhanced or enlarged. The example below demonstrates this,

Babies are good language learners

It is hard to know what babies want. They can't talk, walk, or even point at what they're thinking about. Yet, newborns begin to develop language skills long before they begin speaking. And, compared to adults, they develop these skills quickly. People have a hard time learning new languages as they grow older, but infants have the ability to learn any language easily.

For a long time, scientists have tried to explain how such young children can learn complicated grammatical rules and sounds of a language. Now, researchers are obtaining a better idea of what is happening in the brains of the tiniest language learners.

Moreover, to show the frequency of exposure to the English article functions (i.e. the English article uses) in the teaching materials used in this study, the following procedures were conducted.

1. In order to recognize the amount of the article system uses each group had during the course of teaching, the teaching materials were classified. The overall article uses in those materials were counted and classified by functions, (i.e. the uses of the article system in chapter 3). This procedure was used to determine whether a group had more article uses than the other two groups or not. The following table (Table 4.2) presents the results.

Table 4.2 The Amount of the Uses of the English Article system in each group

Article Group	The	a/an	Ø	Total number of articles	Total number of words in the materials
TEI/CG	401	247	793	1441	5799
DT	378	256	855	1489	7166



The table shows that although the total number of words in the DT group is more than the other two groups, the ratio of the total number of the article uses is almost similar. This fact reveals that the density of the article uses was not much different amongst the three groups.

2. To show whether the distribution of specific uses is similar in the three groups or not, a random sample of 200 nouns from each teaching material were chosen and compared with the uses of the article system in chapter 3. The following table (Table 4.3) presents the results.

Table 4.3 Distribution of Specific Uses in the Three Groups

no	No. of use in Ch.3	Name of use	Teaching materials TEI/CG	Teaching materials DT
1.	3.7.1.1	Anaphoric reference	1	2
2.	3.7.1.2	Cataphoric reference	4	4
3.	3.7.1.3	Situational use	14	33
4.	3.7.1.4	<i>The</i> with proper nouns	36	37
5.	3.7.1.5	<i>The</i> as part of a name	2	2
6.	3.7.1.6	<i>The</i> with superlatives	2	2
7.	3.7.2	The generic uses of <i>the</i>	4	4
8.	3.7.3	<i>The</i> with names of institutions	3	4
9.	3.7.4	Names of the days of the week	4
10.	3.7.5	<i>The</i> with demonstrative pronouns	4	2
11.	3.7.6	The logical use of <i>the</i>	3	2
12.	3.7.7	The use of <i>the</i> with sporadic reference	3	3
13.	3.8.1	The zero article with plural count nouns	19	19
14.	3.8.2	The zero article with mass/ non-count nouns	18	18
15.	3.8.3	The zero article with names of institutions	5	6
16.	3.8.4	The zero article with means of transportation	1	1
17.	3.8.5	The zero article with names of seasons	3	3
18.	3.8.6	The zero article with times of day and night	5	5
19.	3.8.7	The zero article with names of meals	6	5
20.	3.8.8	The zero article with illnesses
21.	3.8.9	Times of the day	1	1
22.	3.8.10	The zero article with non-generic meaning	1
23.	3.8.11	The zero article with the words town/home	1
24.	3.8.12	Miscellaneous uses of the zero article	2
25.	3.9.1.1	Non-referring uses of a/an	5	6
26.	3.9.1.2	a/an with descriptive exclamations	2
27.	3.9.1.3	a/an and the numeral one	16	22
28.	3.9.1.4	a/an in measuring phrases

29.	3.9.1.5	a/an when a referent is mentioned for the first time	9	9
30.	3.9.1.6	a/an in vacillation
31.	3.9.2	Generic uses of a/an	1
	Total		173	196
	Other		27	4

In this particular sample, the above uses were sampled. Some of these uses were not demonstrated, but they appeared in the whole sample in comparative frequency. Therefore, even in this partial data (i.e. 200 nouns) of the materials used in classes, the majority of uses are attested in a similar frequency.

Overall, there were slightly more relevant examples in the materials of the DT group, but the difference is small.

4.5 Scoring Procedure

The scoring procedures of the two tasks were as follows:

4.5.1 Multiple Choice Task

The data collected from the multiple choice task were analysed by using Statistics Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Before accomplishing the evaluation of the treatment outcome, an analysis of pre-existing group differences was carried out. A one-way ANOVA was used on the pre-test scores of the three groups. The results of the ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences among the three groups prior to the course. To compare post-tests differences among the three groups, within- group analyses, (a paired- sample t-test) and between-group analyses, (an independent- sample T-test) were conducted.

With reference to statistical decisions, the post-tests results revealed that there were significant differences among the three groups. The detailed findings of the statistical tests are presented and interpreted in the next chapter.

4.5.2 Composition Task

As mentioned above, this task contained two questions in each test. The participants were informed to write at least a one hundred word limit for each question. After each test, the researcher collected the students' papers and typed all their answers in order to classify the kinds of errors that they had made. Based on the views of Gass and Selinker (1994), Bataineh (2005), Johnson (2007) Ellis & Barkhuizen (2009) and many others who believe that error analysis is of considerable significance, this study has adopted this type of investigation. It is a very important tool due to the fact that when researchers classify learners' errors, additional facts about the process of learning can be realised. Accordingly, this task was adopted as it assisted the researcher to collect more data, in order to classify various kinds of article errors.

There were a total number of 540 paragraphs in all tests. The data obtained were analysed by means of the following steps. First, a table containing all nouns was drawn up, so as to identify and classify the article errors. Second, the data were identified for any deviation of use of the English article system. Each noun phrase was placed in a row followed by each student's response. After that, the article errors found in the participants' compositions were recorded and the errors were proved by improving the correct use of the article in the target language. The errors were then classified. The researcher randomly selected 34 papers from the three tests, with the purpose of compute the article uses using inter-rater reliability (Kappa)⁵ using

⁵According to Landis and Koch, 1977, a more complete list of how Kappa might be interpreted is as follows:

SPSS. It is a measure used to examine the agreement between the two raters to find out how often they agree on categorical variables. The researcher and a native speaker of English were the raters of this set of papers. The researcher and the native speaker rater coded the correct article uses independently, i.e. each coded the scripts without knowing what the other had carried out. The codes were subsequently compared using SPSS and the findings showed that there were no significant differences between the researcher and the native speaker of English. The results of the inter-rater analysis kappa = 0.94 with $p < 0.001$.

4.6 Summary of the Chapter

The present study contained three groups of first year undergraduate Libyan ESL students at the University of Garyounis with 90 participants in total. The three groups were selected randomly for different methods, which included traditional instruction, enhanced input instruction and exposure to an intensive amount of reading passages. Prior to the commencement of the course, a pre-test was given to the participants. The course lasted for nine weeks. At the end of the course, the students were given post-test1, and six months later, they were given post-test 2. The results of the three tests were compared by using SPSS, with the purpose of verify the following: (1) Whether the instruction efficiently improved the participants' accuracy with regard to the use of the English article system and if yes, whether the instructional effects could remain for a period of time. (2) What each group had learned other than the English article system. In other words, did students improve their writing and

Kappa	Interpretation
< 0	Poor agreement
0.0 – 0.20	Slight agreement
0.21 – 0.40	Fair agreement
0.41 – 0.60	Moderate agreement
0.61 – 0.80	Substantial agreement
0.81 – 1.00	Almost perfect agreement

their use of grammatical items other than the article system? In order to determine this, two measurements were used: the measurement of grammatical development using T-unit and the measurement of lexical development using Type-taken ratio.

Moreover, the students' scripts were collected and analysed in order to determine the kinds of article errors made by Libyan learners of English and to ascertain whether the mother tongue has a role in Libyan learners' selections of the English article system.

The next chapter presents the findings of data analysis from different facets. It produces the findings of two kinds of tasks: a multiple choice task and a composition task. In addition, it presents a comparison between both tasks in order to recognize which task the students perform better in.

Chapter Five

Findings

5.0 Introduction

As previously mentioned, this study is an attempt to identify the reasons why Libyan learners of English have difficulty in acquiring the English article system. Accordingly, this study is seeking to achieve the following:

- (1) To identify and analyse the types of errors Libyan students make in the use of articles.
- (2) To find out which article use will prove to be the most overused/underused by Libyan learners during the learning process. As explicit and implicit grammar learning has been an issue of open ended debate and empirical examination, the researcher realised the necessity to examine the influence of two instructional strategies, namely an explicit deductive teaching strategy and an implicit enhanced input strategy on the use of the English article system by second language Libyan learners of English.
- (3) To establish what improvement each group has made in addition to the English article system.

This chapter reports the findings of data analysis from different sides. It presents the findings of two kinds of tasks used in the present study: a multiple choice task and a composition task. Regarding the analyses of the multiple choice task, they are organized as: descriptive statistics, analyses of pre-test performances, analyses of post-test 1 and post-test 2 using repeated measures ANOVA and a follow up t-test. With respect to the composition task part, it presents analyses similar to those mentioned above. i.e., analyses of pre-treatment performances, repeated measures ANOVA and a follow-up analysis. In addition, this task allows for the

analysis and classifying of article errors made by Libyan learners. Moreover, this chapter presents a comparison between both tasks.

5.1 Results of the Multiple Choice Task

Before presenting the results, a comparison was needed in order to compare the three versions of the tests to make sure that they are equally difficult and no significant differences exist amongst them. The three tests were compared as follows:

The mean of all the scores of versions 1, 2 & 3 were computed in order to determine which version is more difficult than the other versions. The SPSS results revealed that the three versions were equally difficult for all participants and there were no significant differences amongst them.

Table 5.1 Descriptive Statistics of all scores of versions 1, 2, 3

Version	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Version 1	90	17.51	4.710
Version 2	90	17.38	4.615
Version 3	90	17.59	4.811

Moreover, a paired-sample t-test was conducted to compare version 1 vs. version 2, version 1 vs. version 3 and version 2 vs. version 3. The findings reveal that there were no significant differences amongst the three versions.

		t	df	Sig.
Pair 1	Ver1 - Ver2	.258	89	.797
Pair 2	Ver2 - Ver3	-.423	89	.674
Pair 3	Ver1 - Ver3	-.173	89	.863

In order to show whether the three tests cover a range of uses, the three versions of the test were compared with the uses of the article system mentioned on chapter 3. The following table (Table 5.2) presents the comparison.

Table 5.2 The Three Versions of the Test with the Functions of the Article System in Chapter 3

No. of use	Name of use	V1	V2	V3
3.7.1.1	Anaphoric reference	5		3
3.7.1.2	Cataphoric reference	2	1	3
3.7.1.3	Situational use	2	4	2
3.7.1.4	<i>The</i> with proper nouns	1	7	1
3.7.1.6	<i>The</i> with superlatives	1
3.7.3	<i>The</i> with names of institutions	1
3.7.6	The logical use of <i>the</i>	3	1
3.7.7	The use of <i>the</i> with sporadic reference	2	1
3.8.1	The zero article with plural count nouns	1	3	2
3.8.2	The zero article with mass/non-count abstract nouns	5	4	2
3.8.3	The zero article with names of institutions	1
3.8.6	The zero article with times of day and night	1
3.8.7	The zero article with names of meals	1	1
3.8.10	The zero article with non-generic meaning	1
3.8.11	The zero article with the words town/home	1
3.9.1.1	Non-referring uses of a/an	3	4	4
3.9.1.3	A/an with the numeral one	3	3	2
3.9.1.5	Uses of a/an when referent is mentioned for the first time	3	6

The above table indicates that the three tests contained varied uses of the article system. Although versions 1 and 3 had uses that were not in version 2, such uses were mentioned only once. Moreover, version 2 had some uses that were more than those of versions 1 and 3.

5.1.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Three Tests

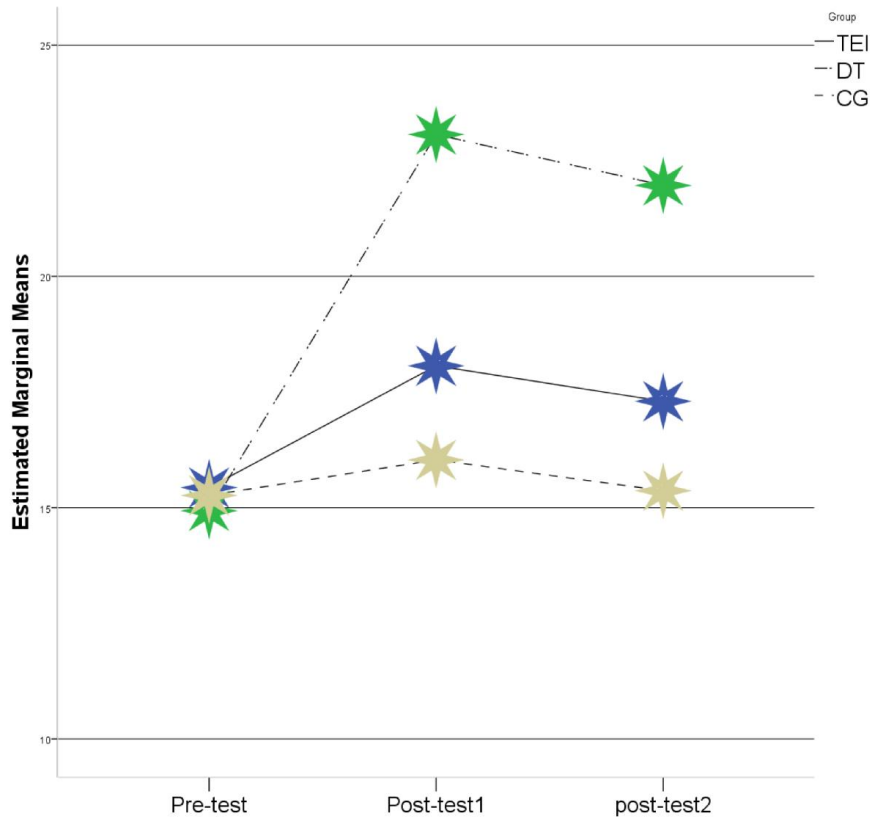
First, descriptive statistics of the three tests, together with the number of participants in each group, mean scores and standard deviation are presented in Table 5.3. The data revealed that the treatment groups, (TEI and DT), regardless of various instruction methods, outperformed the third group, the (CG) in the progress from the pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2.

Table 5.3 Percentages of Correct Uses of Each Group in the Pre-test, Post-test 1 and Post-test 2

Test Group	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
TEI (n- 30)	15.43	4.014	18.07	3.814	17.30	4.178
DT (n=30)	14.93	3.562	23.07	3.107	21.97	2.918
CG (n=30)	15.27	4.102	16.03	4.271	15.37	3.755

From Figure 5.1, it can be noted that the effect of teaching on the TEI and DT groups improved from pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2. However, after the testing, the DT group improved the students' performances more than the other two groups.

Figure 5.1. The Mean of the Three Groups in Pre, Post-test1 and post-test2



5.1.2 Analyses of Pre-test Performances

As the selection of the three groups involved in this study was from intact classes, a test of pre-existing differences amongst the three groups was conducted, in order to ensure equality across the groups before conducting the treatment.

The null hypothesis (H0) means that there is no effect of the testing; hence, the means of pre-test, post-test1 and post-test 2 should be similar. With regard to the alternative hypothesis (H1) at least one of the means is different. The following analyses were based on the SPSS outputs.

To determine whether there were pre-existing differences amongst the three groups, a one-way ANOVA was performed on the pre-test scores of all groups. The ANOVA findings show that

no significant differences lay between the performances of the three groups before the treatment was initiated: $F(2, 87) = .128, p = .880$. The p-value $= .880$ is greater than 0.05. Consequently, the null hypothesis $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ can be accepted. In other words, the pre-test revealed that the three groups did not appear to have any particular advantages over one another at the outset.

The results of the post test scores are presented below.

5.1.3 Analyses of Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 Performances

In this part of the analysis, three kinds of analyses were carried out: **(1)** 3x3 repeated measures ANOVA (3 tests x 3 groups), **(2)** an independent sample t-test, (a follow up analysis used to compare groups: *TEI* vs. *DT*, *DT* vs. *CG*, *TEI* vs. *CG* in the three tests) and **(3)** a paired sample t-test, (a follow up analysis was used to compare tests within the same groups. That is, for each group: *pre-test* vs. *post-test 1* and *pre-test* vs. *Post-test 2*). With regards to repeated measure ANOVA, an analysis of between-group comparison, within- group comparison and Test*Group interaction was performed to examine whether there were significant differences among the three groups. ‘Between-group comparison’ is an experimental design, in which the three groups are assigned to three different tests (pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2) in the treatment. It examines any differences observed between the groups. ‘Within- group comparison’ is one in which the same individuals participate in all of the experimental conditions. Repeated measures are taken from the same persons; hence, differences are examined within the subjects. Within- group analyses, (a paired- sample t-test) and between-group analyses, (an independent- sample T-test) were carried out.

5.1.3.1 Repeated Measures ANOVA

In contrast to the pre-test results, the ANOVA results revealed that there were significant differences amongst the three groups. Table 5.4 displays the main effects of the test, test*group and group results. The analysis of the ‘test’ is significant with a large effect size⁶: **F (2, 87) =127,371, p<0.001, Partial Eta Squared= 0.594**. This means that there are significant differences among the three tests when all groups are averaged together. However, this study is interested in establishing how the TEI, DT and CG groups improved relative to each other. This can be observed by knowing the Test*Group analysis. As shown in Table 5.3 below, the interaction between the test and group was significant with a large effect size: **F (4,174) = 48.016, p<0.001, Partial Eta Squared = 0.525**. Basically, this means that the groups had significantly different changes from pre-test to post-test 2.

Table 5.4
Repeated measures ANOVA: Test of within, between-subject effects

Subject	df	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Test	2	127.371	.000	.594
Test*Group	4	48.016	.000	.525
Group	2	12.542	.000	.224

Moreover, the main effect of a group, (i.e. Between- Group Analysis) examines if there are significant differences between the three groups. The results indicate that there are statistically significant differences across the three groups with a small effect size: **F (2, 87) = 12.542, p<0.001, Partial Eta Squared = .224**.

⁶According to Cohen’s guideline (1988), an effect size of 0.10 signifies a small effect, an effect size of 0.25 signifies a medium effect, and an effect size of 0.40 signifies a large effect.

According to the recommendation of Corston and Colman (2000) and Cramer (2008), the t-test assists researchers to locate differences amongst the participants. Accordingly, to pin-point where the differences lay across the groups, a follow up analysis, (an independent sample t-test and paired sample t-test) was conducted and the results were as follows.

5.1.3.2 Independent Sample t-test Analysis

An independent – sample t-test was conducted to compare the pre-test scores, post-test 1 and post-test 2 scores among the three groups.

Regarding the pre-test analysis, three levels were analysed: Group TEI vs. DT, TEI vs. CG and DT vs. CG. The results revealed that there were not significant differences in the scores for level 1: $t(58) = .510$, $p = .612$, level 2: $t(58) = -.336$, $p = .738$ and level 3: $t(58) = .159$, $p = .874$. (Table 5. 5 demonstrates)

Table 5.5 The results of independent sample t-test of the pre-test

Level	t	df	Sig.
TEI vs. DT	.510	58	.612
DT vs. CG	-.336	58	.738
TEI vs. CG	.159	58	.874

With respect to post-test 1 analysis, Table 5.6 shows that there were significant differences only between the first two levels, i.e., level 1: $t(58) = -5.567$, $p < 0.001$ and level 2: $t(58) = 7.294$, $p < 0.001$, although not with level 3, where a different pattern was found: $t(58) = 1.945$, $p = .057$.

Table 5.6The results of independent sample t-test of post-test 1

Level	t	df	Sig.
TEI vs. DT	-5.567	58	.000
DT vs. CG	7.294	58	.000
TEI vs. CG	1.945	58	.057

Similar to post-test1 analysis, the post-test 2 analysis (Table 5.7) demonstrated that there were significant differences only between the first two levels. That is, level 1: $t(58) = -5.015$, $p < 0.001$ and level 2: $t(58) = 7.601$, $p < 0.001$. As for level 3, there was no significant difference between the TEI group and the CG: $t(58) = 1.885$, $p = .064$.

Table 5.7
The results of independent sample t-test of post-test 2

Level	t	df	Sig.
TEI vs. DT	-5.015	58	.000
DT vs. CG	7.601	58	.000
TEI vs. CG	1.885	58	.064

These results suggest that the three groups had similar scores before the initiation of the treatment. However, in post-test 1 and post-test 2 significant differences were detected between group pairs except for the TEI group and the CG. Put another way, the DT group significantly outperformed the other two groups and made significant improvements in their selection of the English article system both in post-test1 and post-test 2.

5.1.3.3 Paired Sample t-test Analysis

A paired-sample t-test was conducted to compare **Pre vs. Post-test 1** and **Pre vs. Post-test 2** for each group (See Table 5.8). The findings were as follows:

The results of the TEI group illustrated that the group had improved significantly in their performance from pre to post-test 1: $t(29) = -7.970$, $p < .001$ as well as from pre to post-test 2: t

(29) = -4.133, $p < .001$. This result suggests that this group's performance developed after 6 months of instruction.

Likewise, with the TEI group, the results of the DT group revealed that the performance of this group had significant differences from pre to post-test 1: $t(29) = -13.909$, $p < .001$ and from pre-test to post-test 2: $t(29) = -11.105$, $p < .001$. This result suggests that in the long term the group's performance was improved.

With regards to the performance of the CG, the results showed that there were significant differences only between pre and post-test 1: $t(29) = -4.173$, $p < .001$, but not between pre and post-test 2: $t(29) = -.280$, $p = .781$. This result suggests that the group remained unchanged after 6 months of instruction. Although the group was taught by means of exposure to an intensive amount of authentic articles and comprehension questions about those articles, it improved in its use of the article system. This improvement may be because the students were having their normal classes, (including grammar classes) when performing the treatment.

5.8 Results of paired sample t-test.

Group			t	df	sig
TEI	Pair 1	Pretest – Posttest1	-7.970	29	.000
	Pair 2	Pretest –posttest2	-4.133	29	.000
DT	Pair 1	Pretest – Posttest1	-13.909	29	.000
	Pair 2	Pretest –posttest2	-11.105	29	.000
CG	Pair 1	Pretest – Posttest1	-4.173	29	.000
	Pair 2	Pretest –posttest2	-.280	29	.781

The results of the paired sample t-test reveal that both groups (TEI and DT) improved in article use from pre-test to post-test 2 and the improvement retained for six months when post-test 2 was administered. However, for the CG significant progress was noticed on the immediate

post-test1, but not on post-test 2. In other words, this group's performance did not improve after 6 months of instruction.

Moreover, as mentioned earlier, a composition task was presented in this study. The following section displays more details, analyses and the results of this task. It is organized as follows: First, it presents how the scores were obtained. Second, it displays the results and kinds of analysis performed in each test (pre, post-test 1 and post-test 2).

5.2 Results of the Composition Task

The scores of this task were collected by counting the number of nouns in each student paper and subsequently, the correct article uses were divided by the total number of all nouns. This step was conducted because the students produced some compositions that were longer than others, so this was done in order to normalize the scores. This procedure was applied to all the participants. For instance, if a student presents 15 nouns and only 6 article uses are correct, in this case the number 6 is divided by 15 and 40% is the student's total number.

With respect to the results, they were given as follows: first, descriptive statistics and pretreatment analysis, (using one way ANOVA) were conducted to find out whether or not there were pre-existing differences amongst the three groups before conducting the treatment. After that, in post-test 1 and post-test 2, 3x3 repeated measures ANOVA and a follow up t-test were performed.

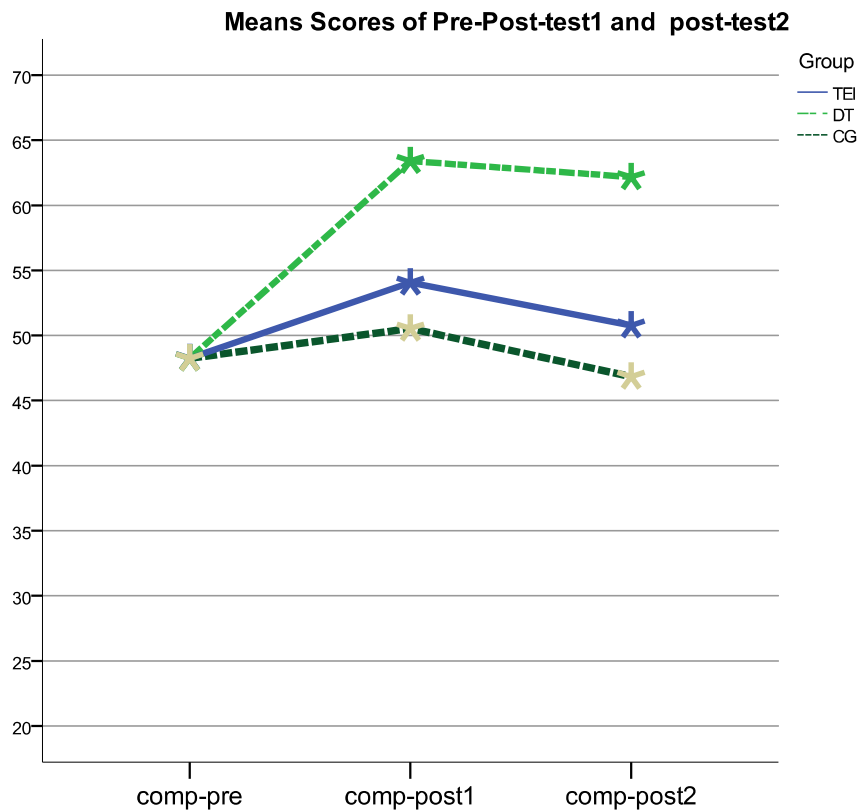
5.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

First, Table 5.9 displays an overall picture of the results of the three tests (pre, post-test 1 and post-test 2) followed by Figure 5.2 displaying the improvement in the students' performances among the three tests.

Table 5.9
Percentages of Correct uses of Each Group in the Pre-test, Post-test 1 and Post-test 2

Test Group	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
TEI (n- 30)	48.27	8.638	54.07	8.890	50.77	9.295
DT (n=30)	48.23	10.371	63.40	11.416	62.17	10.515
CG (n=30)	48.23	10.105	50.53	10.471	46.83	11.329

Figure 5.2 Means Scores of Pre- test, Post-test 1 and Post-test 2



The above figure reveals that the effect of teaching on the TEI and DT groups improved from pre-test to post-test 2. However, in the DT group the students' performance improved after the treatment and as a result was better than the other two groups.

5.2.2 Inferential Statistics

5.2.2.1 Analyses of Pre-Treatment Performances

Before conducting the treatment, a pre-existing differences examination was carried out. A one-way ANOVA was conducted on the pre-test scores. The ANOVA results showed that the scores did not differ significantly: $F(2, 87) = .000, p = 1.000$.

Consideration of the results of post-test 1 and post-test 2 is required.

5.2.2.2 Post-test 1 and Post-test 2 Results

In this part of the analysis, the following analyses were conducted: (1) 3x3 repeated measures ANOVA (3 tests x 3 groups) and (2) a follow up analysis (independent sample t-test and paired sample t-test). With regard to repeated measures ANOVA, it was performed to find out the main effect of group, main effect of test and group* test interaction among the three groups. The results are presented in the following sections.

5.2.2.2.1 The Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA

The ANOVA results revealed that there were significant differences amongst the three groups. Table (5.10) displays the results of repeated measures ANOVA. The analysis of the 'test' was significant with a large effect size: $F(2, 174) = 59.722, p < 0.001, \text{Partial Eta Squared} = 0.407$. This means that there are significant differences among the three tests. Moreover, the interaction between test and group was significant and the effect of this significance is of great importance: $F(4, 174) = 23.495, p < 0.001, \text{Partial Eta Squared} = 0.351$. Basically, this means that the groups had significantly different changes from pre-test to post-test 2. As with the main effect of group (i.e. Between- Group Analysis), the results indicate that there were statistically significant differences across the three groups with a small effect size: $F(2, 87) = 8.114, p < 0.001, \text{Partial Eta Squared} = .157$.

Table 5.10
Repeated measure ANOVA: Test of within and between-Subject Effects

Subject	df	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Test	2	59.722	.000	.407
Test*Group	4	23.495	.000	.351
Group	2	8.114	.001	.157

To pin-point where the differences lay across the three groups, a follow up analysis (independent sample t-test and paired sample t-test) was conducted. The former is used to compare TEI vs. DT, DT vs. CG and TEI vs. CG. The latter is used to compare the three tests within each group (for each group: pre vs. post-test 1 and pre vs. post-test 2). The results were as follows.

5.2.2.2.2 Independent Sample t-test Analysis

An independent – sample t-test was conducted to compare the pre-test scores, post-test1 scores and post-test 2 scores amongst the three groups.

Regarding the pre-test analysis, three levels were analysed: TEI **vs.** DT, TEI **vs.** CG and DT **vs.** CG. The results revealed that there were no significant differences in the scores for level 1: $t(58) = .014$, $p = .989$, level 2: $t(58) = .000$, $p = 1.000$ and level 3: $t(58) = .014$, $p = .989$. (Table 5. 11 demonstrates)

Table 5.11
Results of independent Sample t-test of the Pre-test

Level	t	df	Sig.
TEI vs. DT	.014	58	.989
DT vs. CG	.000	58	1.000
TEI vs. CG	.014	58	.989

With respect to post-test 1 analysis, Table 5.12 shows that there were significant differences only between the first two levels. That is, level 1: $t(58) = -3.533$, $p < 0.001$ and level 2: $t(58) = 4.549$, $p < 0.001$. However, a different pattern was found in level 3: $t(58) = 1.409$, $p = .164$.

Table 5.12
Results of independent sample t-test of post-test 1

Level	t	df	Sig.
TEI vs. DT	-3.533	58	.001
DT vs. CG	4.549	58	.000
TEI vs. CG	1.409	58	.164

Similar to post-test 1 analysis, post-test 2 analysis (Table 5.13) shows that there were significant differences only between the first two levels. That is, level 1: $t(58) = -4.449$, $p < 0.001$ and level 2: $t(58) = 5.434$, $p < 0.001$. As for level 3, there were no significant differences between the TEI group and the CG: $t(58) = 1.470$, $p = .147$.

Table 5.13
Results of Independent Sample t-test of Post-test 2

Level	t	df	Sig.
TEI vs. DT	-4.449	58	.000
DT vs. CG	5.434	58	.000
TEI vs. CG	1.470	58	.147

These results suggest that the DT group made significant improvements in their selection of the English article system both in post-test 1 and post-test 2.

5.2.2.3 Paired Sample t-test Analysis

A paired-sample t-test was conducted to compare pre-test with post-test 1 and pre-test with post-test 2 for each group. The results (Table 5.14) are presented below.

The results of the TEI group revealed a significant improvement in their performance from pre-test to post-test 1: $t(29) = -6.178, p < .001$. However, there was no a significant difference from pre-test to post-test 2: $t(29) = -1.770, p = .087$. This result suggests that this group's performance remained unchanged after 6 months of instruction.

With respect to the DT group, the results showed that the performance of this group showed significant differences from pre-test to post-test 1: $t(29) = -8.683, p < .001$ and from pre-test to post-test 2: $t(29) = -8.029, p < .001$. This result suggests that this group's performance improved after the treatment and remained 6 months after instruction.

Regarding the performance of the CG, the results were similar to those of the TEI group, i.e., there were significant differences only between pre-test and post-tset1: $t(29) = -5.229, p < .001$, but not between pre-test and post-test 2: $t(29) = 1.944, p = .062$. This result suggests that this group remained unchanged after 6 months of instruction.

Table 5.14
Paired Sample t.test Results in Pre-test, Post-test 1 and Pre-test, Post-test 2

Group			t	df	sig
TEI	Pair 1	comp.pre - comp.post 1	-6.178	29	.000
	Pair 2	comp.pre - comp. post 2	-1.770	29	.087
DT	Pair 1	comp.pre - comp.post 1	-8.683	29	.000
	Pair 2	comp.pre - comp. post 2	-8.029	29	.000
CG	Pair 1	comp.pre - comp.post 1	-5.229	29	.000
	Pair 2	comp.pre - comp. post 2	1.944	29	.062

5.3. Summary of Sections 1 and 2

To sum up, section one presented analyses of the Multiple Choice Task. The data gathered were yielded to three analyses: analyses of pre-test performances using one way ANOVA, analyses of post-test 1 and post-test 2 using 3x3 repeated measures ANOVA and follow-up analyses. The pre-test analyses accepted the null hypothesis and did not show any significant

differences among the three groups. Post-test 1 and post-test 2 rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis. They showed results which were contrary to the pre-test analyses. Repeated measures ANOVA revealed that there were significant differences amongst the three groups. In order to locate the differences, a follow-up analysis was carried out. The independent-sample t-test was performed on the pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2. The analyses of the pre-test did not demonstrate significant differences among the groups. Post-test 1 and post-test 2 showed that the DT group significantly improved in article use and this improvement retained until 6 months later when post-test 2 was administered. However, the paired-sample t-test clearly proved that both treatment groups (TEI and DT) made significant improvements in their selection of the English article system in post-test 1 and post-test 2 after receiving different kinds of instruction. Conversely, the CG remained unchanged after 6 months of instruction.

As with section 2, the same procedures were followed. The pre-test analyses revealed that there were no significant differences amongst the three groups, whilst repeated measures ANOVA showed that there were significant differences amongst the groups. The independent-sample t-test and the paired sample t-test analyses revealed that although the TEI group and CG improved their uses of the English article system, the improvement did not remain at this level for 6 months unlike the DT group, which improved its performance and remained for 6 months. (Table 5.14 demonstrates).

Hence, the performances of the DT group provided a positive confirmation for explicit teaching strategies. Students who received a deductive teaching strategy benefited more from the article instruction than students who received enhanced input and exposure to an intensive amount of reading passages and whose improvement diminished with time.

In response to the third research question: To find out whether explicit deductive teaching or implicit Input enhancement teaching will be the most effective approach in teaching the article system to Libyan learners of English, the answer is that, although both teaching strategies proved to be effective in teaching the English article system to Libyan students, the DT group used the English article system appropriately. This group performed better at the end of the course and the effect did not diminish with time. Unlike the DT group, the improvement of the TEI group after 6 months of teaching was around the same as the control group. Put another way, the test results positively demonstrated that Libyan learners improve and become more accurate dependant on the choice of the English article system after being taught by the DT method.

Moreover, when the two tasks are compared, Table 5.15 shows identical results between the two tasks in the three groups. The only difference was detected when using paired sample t-test in which the pre-test was compared with post-test 2 in the TEI group in both tasks. The results of the multiple choice task showed that this group improved from pre-test to post-test 2 whereas in the composition task, it did not improve from pre-test to post-test 2

Table5.15 Summary of the Results of the Analysis of Multiple Choice Task and the Composition Task				
	Multiple choice task (MCT)		Composition task (CT)	
Pre-test analyses	TEI= DT= CG		TEI= DT= CG	
Repeated measures ANOVA	There are significant differences among the groups		There are significant differences among the groups	
Independent-sample t-test	pre	TEI= DT= CG	pre	TEI= DT= CG
	Post1	DT > TEI>CG	Post1	DT > TEI>CG
	Post2	DT > TEI>CG	Post2	DT > TEI>CG
Paired sample t-test	TEI	Pre vs. Post1: improved	TEI	Pre vs. Post1: improved
		Pre vs. Post2: improved		Pre vs. Post2: not improved
	DT	Pre vs. Post1: improved	DT	Pre vs. Post1: improved
		Pre vs. Post2: improved		Pre vs. Post2: improved
	CG	Pre vs. Post1: improved	CG	Pre vs. Post1: improved
		Pre vs. Post2: not improved		Pre vs. Post2: not improved

Amongst vital issues in the research of SLA is the significance of L2 learners' errors. What are their sources? Are they due to the transfer of L1 grammatical structures into L2, or are they caused by some interlanguage (IL) grammar? This study has considered the issue of L2 learners of English, in particular Libyan learners. It has attempted to understand the nature of their errors and their probable causes which in turn may facilitate the practice of second language teaching.

One of the problematic areas of English for L2 learners in general and Libyan learners in particular is the acquisition of the English article system. What is specific to the English article system, which makes it problematic to acquire? Is there any specific complexity within the English article system or a contrastive factor in Arabic, which has a role in the acquisition of the English article system? In order to ascertain a probable explanation for the above questions, the following part of this study will analyze and classify errors found in English composition by Libyan learners in relation to the English article system. This will provide information for researchers and teachers and assist in understanding the causes of errors.

The following sections of the chapter present the following research goals: (1) To identify and analyse the kinds of errors Libyan students make in the use of articles, (2) To find out which article use will prove to be overused/underused by Libyan learners during the learning process, and (3) to determine the reasons behind the difficulty in learning the English article.

In accordance with the first research question, the types of errors made by 90 first-year students enrolled in the English department at the Faculty of Arts, Garyounis University were classified. The results of the types of errors are presented in accordance with the two tasks used in this study: results of the types of errors of the multiple choice task and of the composition task. They are produced below:

5.4. Types of Article Errors of the Multiple Choice Task

The following sections are presented as follows: description of errors and types of errors with regard to the Surface Structure Taxonomy (SST) of errors which Libyan students made in this study, namely, omission, unnecessary insertion and confusion.

5.4.1 Description of Errors

The superficial structure taxonomy of errors can be divided into three main categories adapted from Tomiyana (1980), Wang (2010) and Ratchanee (2011). The categories are (1) Omission, (2) Unnecessary insertion and (3) Confusion. The present study adds sub-categories to each category and there were nine types of errors made by Libyan learners which are, as follows:

Omission errors:

1. Omission of the indefinite article,
2. Omission of the definite article,

Unnecessary insertion errors (Overgeneralization):

3. Using the indefinite article (*a/an*) with unmarked plural,
4. Using the indefinite article (*a/an*) with marked plural,
5. Using the indefinite article (*a/an*) with uncountable nouns,
6. Using the indefinite article(*a/an*) with adjectives,

Confusion errors:

7. Substituting the indefinite article (*a/an*) for the definite article,
8. Substituting the definite article (*the*) for the indefinite article, and
9. Substituting *a* for *an*.

The details of these types are presented below.

5.4.1.1 Omission of Articles

Omission of articles means that a certain blank is filled with Ø by participants, although the indefinite article *a/an* or the definite article *the* is required (Alsulmi 2010). The examples below demonstrate this:

*She has **long** face.*

*I woke up late in **morning**.*

*She has **extra** job.*

The total number of errors of omission is summed up according to their group number.

Table 5.16 The Total Number of Errors Instances of Omission of Articles

Category	TEI			DT			CG		
	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2
Omission of <i>a/an</i>	93	81	77	102	38	38	106	95	99
%	31	38	36	34	18	18	35	44	46
Omission of <i>the</i>	77	69	75	80	32	39	82	87	89
%	32	37	37	33	17	19	34	47	44

The above table (Table 5.16) presents the number of errors and the percentage each group gained in the pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2. The percentage of errors was obtained by dividing the number of errors in each group by the sum of all errors in each test (i.e. pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2). For example, the total number of errors in the pre-test was 301, and the TEI group made 93 errors in the pre-test. Therefore, 93 is divided by 301 x 100 and the percentage is 31%. It can be noted that the performance of the DT group is ranked first; the TEI group is ranked second and the CG third. The errors in the DT group decreased considerably in post-test 1 and post-test 2.

5.4.1.1.1 Omission of *a/an*

The results of the multiple choice task showed that the errors of omission of *a/an* were more common than the omission of *the*. Regarding the TEI group, Table 5.16 shows that the frequency of errors of this group in post-test 1 and post-test 2 decreased slightly. However, the results of the DT group indicate that the errors in this group reduced noticeably from the pre-test to post-test 1 and post-test 2. The case with the CG was entirely different from that of the TEI and DT groups. Although this group's errors decreased in post-test 1 and post-test 2 than pre-test, the errors increased slightly in post-test 2 than post-test 1.

5.4.1.1.2 Omission of *the*

The results were as follows:

For the TEI group, the errors decreased slightly in post-test 1 and post-test 2 than the pre-test. The errors in the DT group decreased considerably in post-test 1 and post-test 2. The frequency of errors in the CG increased slightly in post-test 1 and post-test 2. (See Table 5.16)

5.4.1.2 Unnecessary Insertion of Articles (Overuse)

Unnecessary insertion of articles refers to cases in which a certain blank is filled with the definite article or the indefinite article, however, the blank requires the zero article. The examples below demonstrate this:

*The last week I stayed in **the** home.*

*She is **a** nice.*

*I played **a** football.*

*She has **a** long hair.*

*I like **a** children.*

The following table (Table 5.17) shows the total number of unnecessary insertion of articles each group made in the three tests.

Table 5.17 Unnecessary Insertion of Articles

Category	TEI			DT			CG		
	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2
Unnecessary insertion of <i>a/an</i>	69	75	78	98	48	52	98	96	100
%	54	57	62	59	63	62	60	61	61
Unnecessary insertion of <i>the</i>	58	57	48	69	28	32	66	62	65
%	46	43	38	41	36	38	40	39	39

The above table (Table 5.17) presents the number of errors and the percentages each group gained in the pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2. The errors of the multiple choice task show that the errors of unnecessary insertion of *a/an* were greater than the errors of unnecessary insertion of *the* in the three groups. More details are presented in the following sections.

5.4.1.2.1 Unnecessary Insertion of *a/an* (Overuse of *a/an*)

Most errors of this kind were due to the use of the indefinite article with uncountable nouns which require the use of the zero article. Moreover, nouns that can be countable and uncountable may cause such errors. The example below demonstrates this as follows:

There is a major problem with _____ nowadays.
a) a crime b) the crime c) crime

The word ‘crime’ could be both countable (to refer to something against the law) and uncountable (to refer to an illegal behaviour in general). In such situations, students may become confused and be unable to decide which reference applies to the word.

The results of the multiple choice task in Table 5.17 were different from those of the composition task (it will be discussed later). The former revealed that the errors of the TEI

group and CG increased slightly from pre-test to post-test 2. Nevertheless, the DT group performed better in post-test 1 and post-test 2.

5.4.1.2.2 Unnecessary Insertion of *the* (Overuse of *the*)

This kind of error, (overuse of *the*) was less frequent than with *a/an* in all groups. Learners tended to use the definite article in situations which require Ø. The DT group outperformed the TEI group, which in turn did better than the CG.

5.4.1.3 Confusion

This type of error refers to the confusion between *the* and *a/an*. The examples below demonstrate this:

After a hour , I went to bed.

It was an quiet beautiful time.

She wear the scarf.

He has the big body.

In an evening I watch TV.

It was a best weekend.

Table 5.18 shows the total number of confusion errors of each group in the three tests.

Table 5.18 Frequency of Errors of Confusion in the Three Groups

Category	TEI			DT			CG		
	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2
A/AN instead of the	49	64	61	57	36	39	48	69	70
%	32	38	36	37	21	23	31	40	41
The instead of a/an	12	17	20	21	9	12	19	22	27
%	23	35	34	40	19	20	37	46	46
A instead of an	17	21	22	24	7	9	19	17	25
%	28	47	39	40	16	16	32	38	45

5.4.1.3.1 Using *a/an* Instead of *the*

As shown in Table 5.18, the examples of misusing *a/an* to replace *the* are far more than those for misuse of *the* when the gap actually requires *a/an*. The table shows that the DT performed better than the TEI group, which in turn outperformed the CG. Moreover, these kinds of errors increased in both the TEI group and the CG. It is evident that the DT group achieved a relatively high accuracy rate as regards using *a/an* immediately after the instruction and 6 months afterwards. This indicates that the explicit teaching strategy, which was used with this group, was helpful in converting their explicit knowledge to implicit knowledge.

5.4.1.3.2 Using *the* Instead of *a/an*

Group DT made the fewest errors in post-test 1 and post-test 2. However, the TEI group and the CG increased their errors slightly in post-test 1 and post-test 2.

5.4.1.3.3 Using *a* Instead of *an*, or *an* instead of *a*

This type of error occurred in situations that require *a* and the students replaced it with *an* or vice versa. For example, in the sentence:

My friend is _____ person.

a) honest b) an honest c) a honest

Most students answered it with *a* instead of *an*. This could be attributed to the fact that students become confused due to a phonetic source. The adjective *honest* starts with a consonant letter, but is silent and the letter which follows is a vowel. Such words require *an* since the first letter is silent. With respect to the performance of the three groups, Table 5.18 shows that the DT group outperformed the other two. The primary cause of the incorrect selection of *a* for *an*, or *an* for *a* is obviously of intralingual origin.

The above sections explain the types of errors of the multiple choice task and the errors made by students in terms of the kinds of errors and their frequency. It is interesting to compare the types of errors of the multiple choice task with those of the composition task to determine the differences between the kinds of errors in the two tasks, i.e., what type of article error is the most common and hence, might be difficult to acquire. The following section presents the results of the errors of the composition task.

5.5 Types of Article Errors of the Composition Task

5.5.1 Omission of Articles

The total number of errors of omission is summed up according to their group number.

Table 5.19 The Total Number of Errors of Omission of Articles

Group	TEI			DT			CG		
Test	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2
No. of errors	107	108	107	111	39	46	113	114	121
%	32	41	39	34	15	17	34	44	44

The above table shows the number of errors and the percentages each group made in pre-test, post-test 1 and post-test 2. It can be noted that the performance of the TEI group was virtually the same in the three tests, and that the CG made more errors in post-test 1 and post-test 2. However, the errors of the DT group decreased considerably in post-test 1 and post-test 2. Put another way, compared with the TEI group and the CG, the DT group made the fewest errors in post-test 1 (39) and post-test 2 (46), which are fewer than the errors of the other two groups. The reason could be due to the fact that the participants from the DT group were more familiar with the test format as they would have been completing similar exercises during the procedure.

Errors of omission were of two types: omission of the indefinite article *a/an* and omission of the definite article *the*. The following table presents more details in relation to each group's types, frequencies and percentage of errors. The frequency and percentage of types of errors were obtained by looking at the number of contexts in which a particular article is required and then computing errors and their proportions raised. The percentage of errors was achieved by dividing the number of errors by the total number of answers x 100 i.e. $\frac{\text{Wrong answers}}{(\text{wrong} + \text{correct answers})} \times 100 = \text{percentage \%}$

Table 5.20 The Most Frequent Article Errors in Each Test

Category	TEI			DT			CG		
	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2
Omission of <i>a/an</i>	85	82	81	83	34	37	87	84	93
%	56	51	52	53	28	28	54	52	55
Omission of <i>the</i>	22	26	26	28	5	9	26	30	28
%	27	29	29	31	9	10	26	28	29

5.5.1.1 Omission of *a/an*

Similar to the results of the multiple choice task, the results of the composition task showed that the errors of omission of *a/an* were more common than the omission of *the*. Regarding the TEI group, Table 5.20 shows that the students omitted the indefinite article considerably more than the definite article. The frequency of errors of this group in post-test 1 and post-test 2 was almost the same and from pre-test to post-test 2 the errors decreased slightly. However, the results of the DT group showed that the errors of this group had been notably reduced from the pre-test to post-test 1 and post-test 2. The case with the CG was entirely different from that of the TEI and DT groups. Although this group's errors decreased in post-test 1, they increased slightly in post-test 2.

5.5.1.2 Omission of *the*

Interestingly, the results of this kind of errors were less than those of the multiple choice task.

The results of these kinds of errors are as follows:

With regards to the TEI group, Table 5.20 showed that the frequency of errors increased slightly in post-test 1 and post-test 2. The errors of the DT group decreased greatly in post-test 1 and post-test 2. The errors in the CG increased in post-test1 and decreased slightly in post-test 2.

5.5.2 Unnecessary Insertion of Articles (Overuse)

The following table (Table 5.21) shows the total number of unnecessary insertion of articles each group made in the three tests.

Table 5.21 Unnecessary Insertion of Articles

Category	TEI			DT			CG		
	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2
Unnecessary insertion of <i>a/an</i>	76	74	72	84	51	40	77	75	73
Percentage %	38	44	40	39	57	53	39	39	38
Unnecessary insertion of <i>the</i>	123	117	109	127	17	21	119	115	117
Percentage %	61	70	61	60	19	28	61	60	61
Total	199	167	180	211	89	75	196	193	192

Table 5.21 showed the number of errors each group committed in the pre-test, post-test1 and post-test 2 and that the errors of unnecessary insertion of *the* were greater than the errors of unnecessary insertion of *a/an* in the TEI group and CG.

5.5.2.1 Unnecessary Insertion of *a/an* (Overuse of *a/an*)

Errors in the use of the indefinite article with unmarked plural, (e.g. people and children), adjectives and with uncountable nouns, (information, hair) were used with high frequency in all groups in the pre-test. The results of the TEI group demonstrated that the errors reduced very slightly from pre-test to post-test 2. Nevertheless, the DT group performed better in post-test 1 and post-test 2. Moreover, the case with the CG was similar to that of TEI group with their errors slightly reduced from the pre-test to post-test 2.

5.5.2.2 Unnecessary Insertion of *the* (Overuse of *the*)

This kind of error was the most frequent in all groups. Learners tended to use the definite article in situations which require Ø. Although the TEI group and CG reduced these kinds of errors in post-test1 and post-test 2, the DT group outperformed them notably. Table 5.21 showed that errors in the DT group decreased remarkably in post-test 1 and post-test 2.

5.5.3 Confusion

Table 5.22 shows the total number of confusion errors of each group in the three tests.

Table 5.22 The Total Number of Confusion Errors in the Three Tests

Category	TEI			DT			CG		
	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2	Pre	Post1	Post2
<i>A/an instead of the</i>	19	15	18	28	7	6	22	26	24
%	28	32	33	41	15	11	32	55	44
<i>The instead of a/an</i>	10	11	9	12	4	4	9	7	9
%	32	69	50	39	25	22	29	44	50
<i>A instead of an</i>	5	4	4	3	1	2	2	5	3
%	50	40	44	30	10	22	20	50	33

5.5.3.1 Using *a/an* Instead of *the*

As shown in Table 5.22 in the three groups, examples of misusing *a/an* to replace *the* are far more than those of misuse of *the* when the gap actually requires *a/an*. The performance of the

TEI group indicates that this group improved very slightly after 6 months of instruction. However, the performance of the DT group improved considerably and achieved a relatively high accuracy rate in using *a/an* immediately after the instruction and 6 months afterwards. As for the CG, their errors increased slightly in post-tests 1 & 2 than in the pre-test.

5.5.3.2 Using *the* Instead of *a/an*

There were few errors of this type in the three groups. The DT group made the fewest errors in post-test 1 and post-test 2, whilst the TEI group and CG produced almost similar results in the three tests.

5.5.3.3 Using *a* Instead of *an*, or *an* instead of *a*

This type of error was made the least in this study. Table 5.22 showed that the performance of the DT group outperformed the other two. The primary cause of the wrong selection of *a* for *an*, or *an* for *a* is obviously of intralingual origin.

In addition, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, this study also aims to: determine which article use will prove to be more problematic (overused/ underused) for Libyan learners during the learning process. Based on the evaluation of the results of this study, the article use that might be challenging for Libyan learners is presented in the next section.

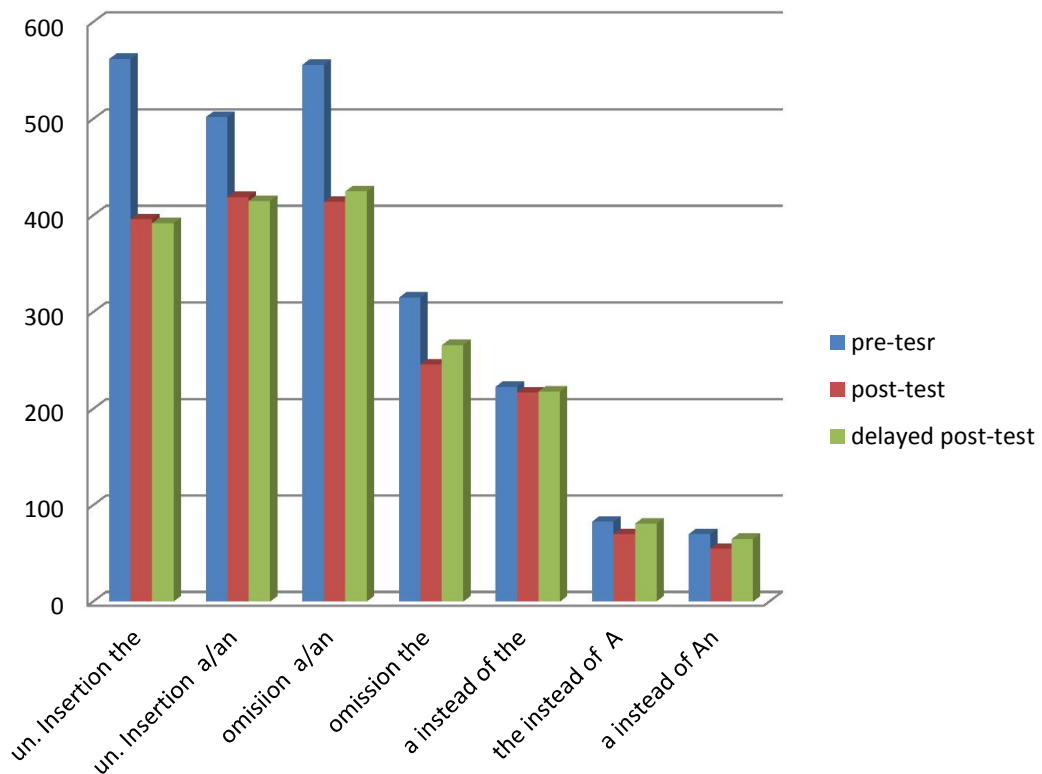
5.6The Article that Might be Problematic for Libyan Learners

To determine which type of article error might be overused/ underused, the errors in both tasks had been counted in the three tests of the three groups. The results are shown in Table 5.23. Errors in the following table are arranged from the most frequent source to the least.

Table 5.23 The Frequency of Errors Arranged from the Most Problematic to the Least

Type of Error	Pre-test	Post-test1	Post-test2	Total
Omission of <i>a/an</i>	556	414	425	1395
Unnecessary insertion of <i>a/an</i>	502	419	415	1336
Unnecessary insertion of <i>the</i>	562	369	392	1323
Omission of <i>the</i>	315	246	226	787
<i>A</i> instead of <i>the</i>	223	217	218	658
<i>The</i> instead of <i>a/an</i>	83	70	81	234
<i>A</i> instead of <i>an</i>	70	55	65	190

Figure 5.3 The Frequency of Errors in the Three Groups



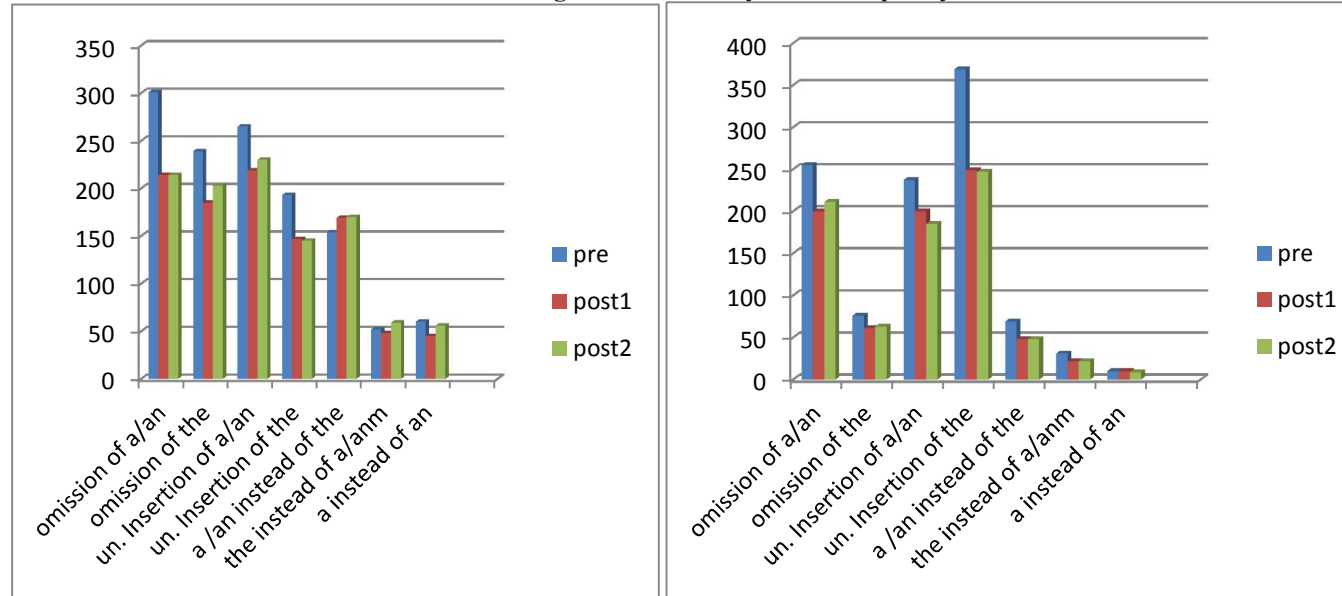
As shown in Table 5.23 and figure 5.3, the omission of the indefinite article *a/an* was the most frequent error category in this study (1395). This indicates that the acquisition of the indefinite article seems to be problematic and might not be easily acquired by Libyan learners. Although the improvement in performance was better in post-tests 1 & 2 than in the pre-test, errors of this type were challenged in post-tests 1 & 2. This means that the instruction strategies used in teaching the English article seem to have made little difference. Interestingly, the unnecessary insertion of the indefinite article is ranked the second problematic (overuse) aspect to be acquired. That is, the participants in this study either considerably added the indefinite article in situations where it should be absent especially with uncountable nouns or omitted it (underuse) in situations that require its presence. This fact is supported by the contrastive analysis hypothesis (see chapter 3), which predicts that Libyan learners of English might overuse the indefinite article in situations that require its absence or overuse it in situations that require its presence. The next chapter will discuss the extent of matching these predictions with the results.

A summary of the comparison between the types of errors of the three groups in the two tasks is shown in the following table (Table 5.24).

Table 5.24 Summary of the Comparison Between the Types of Errors of the Three Groups in the Two Tasks												
Type of Error	MCT						CT					
	<i>Pre</i>	%	<i>Post1</i>	%	<i>Post2</i>	%	<i>Pre</i>	%	<i>Post1</i>	%	<i>Post2</i>	%
Omission of <i>a/an</i>	301	24	214	21	214	20	255	24	200	25	211	27
Omission of <i>the</i>	239	19	185	18	203	19	76	7	61	8	63	8
Unnecessary insertion of <i>a/an</i>	265	21	219	21	230	21	237	23	200	25	185	24
Unnecessary insertion of <i>the</i>	193	15	147	14	145	13	369	35	249	32	247	31
<i>A/an</i> instead of <i>the</i>	154	12	169	16	170	16	69	7	48	6	48	6
<i>The</i> instead of <i>a/an</i>	52	4	48	5	59	5	31	3	22	3	22	3
<i>A</i> instead of <i>an</i>	60	5	45	4	56	5	10	1	10	1	9	1

Note: MCT = Multiple Choice Task CT= Composition task

Figure 5.4 Summary of the Frequency of Errors of MCT and CT



Summary of the Frequency of Errors of MCT

frequency of Errors of CT

As shown in Table 5.24 in the composition task, errors of omission of *a/an* decreased in post-test 1 and compared with errors of post-test1, in post-test 2, errors increased slightly. Errors of omission of *the* decreased greatly in post-test 1 and compared with post-test 1, errors increased slightly in post-test 2. Regarding the unnecessary insertion of *a/an*, the errors decreased in post-test1 and post-test 2. It can be observed that errors in the unnecessary insertion of *the* decreased in post-test 1 and post-test 2. Errors in the use of *a/an* instead of *the*, errors in the use of *the* instead of *a/an* decreased in post-test 1 and post-test 2. Errors in the use of *a* instead of *an* decreased slightly in post-test2.

However, with regards to the multiple choice task, errors of omission of *a/an* and omission of *the* decreased in post-test 1 and post-test 2. Unnecessary insertion of *a/an* and *the* also decreased in post-test1 and post-test 2. Unlike in the composition task the errors in the use of *a/an* instead of *the* increased in post-test 1 and post-test 2. Errors in the use of *the* instead of *a/an* decreased in post-test 1 and increased in post-test 2. Errors in the use of *a* instead of *an* decreased in post-tests 1 & 2 as opposed to the pre-test.

The above mentioned sections showed the errors made by students in this study and based on the errors, the area of the article system that might be problematic is shown. However, it is necessary to recognize the correct uses of the article system in order to determine how many times they used *the* for *the*, *a* for *a* and \emptyset for \emptyset . This procedure assists in relation to comparing what was predicted previously in chapter 3 regarding the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. The following tables reveal the frequency of the correct answers for each group in the three tests.

Table 5.25 Frequency of Correct Answers of Group TEI During the Three Tests

TEI	The / The		A(an)/ A(an)		Ø / Ø		Total
Pre-test: Ø >a > the	40	22%	52	28%	92	50%	184
Post-test1: A >the > Ø	79	31%	96	38%	78	31%	253
Post-test2: The > Ø > a	72	40%	48	26%	62	34%	182

Table 5.26 Frequency of Correct Answers of Group DT During the Three Tests

DT	The / The		A(an)/ A(an)		Ø / Ø		Total
Pre-test: a>Ø > the	44	26%	67	40%	57	34%	168
Post-test 1: a> Ø > the	91	29%	120	39%	98	32%	309
Post-test 2: Ø > a > the	89	27%	101	31%	138	42%	328

Table 5.27 Frequency of Correct Answers of Group CG During the Three Tests

CG	The / The		A(an)/ A(an)		Ø / Ø		Total
Pre-test: a>the > Ø	63	37%	64	38%	42	25%	169
Post-test 1: The > a= Ø	59	35%	55	33%	55	33%	169
Post-test 2: The>a> Ø	60	36%	56	34%	49	30%	165

As shown in table 5.25, for the TEI group, the use of the zero article attained the highest frequency level in the pre-test, the use of the indefinite article achieved the highest frequency level in post-test 1 and the use of the definite article attained the highest frequency level in post-test 2.

However, for the DT group (Table 5.26), the use of the indefinite article attained the highest frequency level in the pre-test and post-test 1, and the use of the zero article realized the highest frequency level in post-test 2.

For the CG (Table 5.27), the use of the indefinite article attained the highest frequency level in the pre-test; the use of the definite article achieved the highest frequency level in post-test 1 and post-test 2.

It can be noted that the TEI and DT groups have similar findings with regards to the use of the indefinite article. Both groups achieved the highest frequency level in post-test 1. The DT group and the CG also obtained similar results concerning the use of the indefinite article. Both groups attained the highest frequency level in the pre-test. Moreover, the TEI group and the CG achieved similar results with respect to the use of the definite article in post-test 2. Both attained the highest frequency level in the use of the definite article.

Table 5.28 Summary of the Frequency of the Correct Answers in the Three Groups

TEI+ DT+ CG	<i>The for the</i>	<i>A(an) for a(an)</i>	<i>Ø for Ø</i>
Pre-test	147	183	191
Post-test 1	224	271	231
Post-test 2	221	199	249
Total	597	659	671

Table 5.28 showed that the use of the definite article received the lowest frequency amount in the pre-test and the use of the indefinite article received the lowest frequency amount in the pre-test. These frequencies are compared with what was predicted in chapter three regarding the CAH. In addition, both errors and the correct uses of the article system are needed, in order to compare them with what was previously determined in the texts used in this study (See chapter 3). Further discussion is presented in the next chapter.

5.7 Explanation of Errors

The English article system is problematic for most L2 learners regardless of their native language, even for advanced learners who have learned other grammatical features perfectly (Master, 2002). In the literature, some facts are given in relation to the challenges faced in this area of grammar.

First of all, according to Master (2002), one of the difficulties in the article system is that the article system is multifunctional. It stacks multiple functions onto one morpheme leading to a complexity for learners. Moreover, Master (1997, p. 332) states that amongst the frequent occurring function words in English are the English article words, causing “continuous rule application to be difficult over an extended stretch of discourse.”

According to Chang (1987), the violation of rules which takes place in some idiomatic phrases and proper nouns may add to the difficulty with the English article system. In addition, a number of linguists (e.g. Sinclair, 1991 and Al-Saidat, 2011) reported that the difficulty of the article system for L2 learners may result from the negative transfer from the learners’ native language.

Finally, although learners may be aware of the rules of the English article system, they may not be able to apply the rules because of insufficient response time in actual communications. This suggestion may be a possible cause of the inconsistency found between learners’ knowledge and act of the use of articles.

The above-mentioned complications are general for all L2 learners regardless of their native language. This study adds a further difficulty and explanations for the making of errors and the details are presented below.

5.7.1 Explanation of *a/an* Omission Errors

Tables 5.16 and 5.20 showed that a considerable number of Libyan students made omission errors of *a/an* whose use is required with singular countable nouns that entail the use of the indefinite article in English. This means that students show indefiniteness by not using an article at all.

For some reason, it is difficult to provide an absolute reason for learners' errors. First, it is not easy to read the learner's mind to recognize the cause behind errors unless an interview or response-comment is involved. Even in the case of an interview or response-comment a student sometimes has tacit knowledge about some grammatical rules where he/she knows the correct answer, but is unable to identify the reason behind it. Second, some errors can be ascribed to multiple sources (this will be explained in the next chapter), however, omission errors of *a/an* may be attributed to some sources, the most obvious of which could be first language transfer (i.e. interlingual interference from the native language). This result is in line with a number of results of other studies (e.g. Swan and Smith, 2001; Mourtagé, 2004; Bataineh, 2005; and Al-haysony, 2012). Moreover, the target language simplification could also lead learners to make errors in their use of the article system. More details about the causes of such errors will be explained in the next chapter.

5.7.2 Explanation of Errors of Omission of *the*

Omission of *the* was less than in the omission of *a/an*. This result may not be attributed to the learners' first language because Arabic has a definite article and the learners omitted it in the situations that require its presence in both languages. The most likely explanation for errors of this kind is due to intralingual interference. This means that learners made errors within the same language. This result was based on the fact that there are some nouns which require the use of *al-* in Arabic and *the* in English, but the students use the zero article instead.

5.7.3 Explanation of Errors of Unnecessary Insertion of *a/an*

Although learners omitted the indefinite article in obligatory situations, they overused it in situations that did not require its presence. Such an error cannot be attributed to learners' first language for Arabic does not have its equivalent. Learners' overuse of the indefinite article is an intralingual influence which could be attributed to the fact that they use *a/an* with uncountable nouns on the grounds of structural similarity to the singular countable nouns, or they overuse *a/an* in order to avoid deletion and for fear of making errors. Furthermore, they may overuse *a* because of the fact that the indefinite article *a* is more frequent than *an* in English. This overuse of *a* reveals that the learners were overgeneralizing and probably under the impact of the transfer of training⁷.

Moreover, learners' use of *a/an* with adjectives, (e.g. She is a beautiful) can be attributed to the reason that they recognize the presence of an English structure in which the adjective is the head of a noun phrase. Learners may use *a/an* in places where they are not required because they may think that the adjective functions as the head of a noun phrase; however, it is used in the same way as a noun.

⁷ Transfer of training refers to special emphasis in the input made by textbooks or instructors.

5.7.4 Explanation of Errors of Unnecessary Insertion of *the*

Tables 5.17, 5.21 reveal that, for Libyan learners, the most common problem tends to be the use of the definite article (overuse) where the zero article is required. Learners misused the zero article and considerably overused the definite article instead. Learners overused the definite article *the* with plural nouns in the target language regardless of the distinction between generic and specific. Sentences like *the people are very kind* and *she likes the children* were used frequently.

5.7.5 Explanation of Using *a/an* Instead of *the*

This kind of error can be explained as an intralingual error due to the fact that Arabic does not have an indefinite article. Such errors occur because learners may keep in their minds the grammatical suggestion that the initial word of the sentence is an indicator that the phrase must be preceded by indefiniteness. This thought could be concluded from the use ‘*Anaphoric reference*’ (See section 3.7).

5.7.6 Explanation of Using *a* Instead of *an*

This kind of error occurred in few cases in the two tasks. The use of *a* instead of *an* occurred in phrases which require *an* where the first letter is silent and followed by a vowel. For instance, the phrase *an hour ago* was written as **a hour ago* in most cases. However, the use of *an* instead of *a* was very rare. The reason for the use of *a* instead of *an* can be attributed to the students’ lack of knowledge of the words in which the first letters are silent. For instance, in this study there were some words in which the first letter was not silent, but the students used *an* instead of *a* because they were unaware that this letter was not silent, (e.g. I went to an hotel). Moreover, the use of *a* instead of *an* occurred in places where the use of the indefinite

article depends on phonetic rules. For example, the phrase *an MA in Italian literature* was written frequently as *a MA in Italian literature*.

5.8 Sources of Errors

From what has been previously reported, it can be noted that the English article poses a problem for Libyan learners of English. The goal of this study was to investigate the causes behind such difficulty. It was established that the sources of the errors committed in this study were due to: interlingual interference from the native language and intralingual interference within the same language (i.e. English). These sources seem to be the causes of the erroneous selection of the article system. The intralingual errors may include:

- Omission of the definite article,
- Using the indefinite article (*a/an*) with unmarked plural,
- Using the indefinite article (*a/an*) with marked plural,
- Using the indefinite article (*a/an*) with uncountable nouns,
- Using the indefinite article (*a/an*) with adjectives,
- Substituting the indefinite article (*a/an*) for the definite article,
- Substituting *a* for *an*.
- Omission of the indefinite article (*a/an*), and
- Substituting the definite article (*the*) for the indefinite article (*a/an*).

Interlingual errors may include:

- Omission of the indefinite article (*a/an*), and
- Substituting the definite article (*the*) for the indefinite article (*a/an*).

All in all, the results revealed that the English article system is problematic for Libyan students. Moreover, they presented the types of errors committed in this study and

furthermore, which type of article use could be problematic in terms of overuse and underuse. The sources of these errors are also indicated. The question that needs to be asked is why there was an improvement in one group compared to another. Put another way, as the students' level of proficiency was similar before conducting the treatment, why did the results show one group outperforming the others. Did the teaching strategy used to teach each group have an effect on such an improvement? Can students benefit more from using a specific teaching strategy, (explicit or implicit) that assists them to acquire a language and converts their explicit knowledge into implicit one? The answers to these questions are presented below.

5.9 The Effect of Teaching Strategies in the Process of Learning

As mentioned earlier in the previous chapters, three different teaching strategies were used in this study to teach the English article system to three groups of first year Libyan students at the University of Garyounis. The TEI group received an implicit teaching strategy, (i.e. textual enhanced input), the DT group was instructed using an explicit teaching strategy, (deductive teaching), and the CG (the control group) received communicative teaching, (exposure to language through reading texts). With regards to the use of the article system appropriately, the results revealed that the DT group performed better than the TEI group, which in turn outperformed the CG, (i.e. from a high accuracy to a low accuracy: **DT > TEI > CG**). It can be concluded that the use of a certain teaching strategy may help to overcome learners' problems.

The outstanding performances of the DT group provide practical confirmation of the possibility of Master's (1997) pedagogical framework, in which he suggested that more cognitive habits of teaching can be exploited in relation to the English article system instruction to learners at the intermediate level of proficiency. Implementing the article system instruction is, definitely, helpful to intermediate-level learners. As a result, this study has

yielded two crucial results. First, the two experimental groups, (TEI and DT), both were instructed through systematic ⁸article instruction in two different teaching strategies, which developed their use of the article system by the end of the teaching phase. Although the performances of the two groups regressed in post-test 2, their performances in post-test 2 were better than their performances in the pre-test. This means that the improvement remained until 6 months after the teaching. Nevertheless, the control group demonstrated almost consistent growth. Second, despite the effectiveness of the instruction as shown by the three groups, the DT group, (deductive teaching) significantly outperformed the TEI group, (the enhanced input strategy), whose improvement was better than that of the CG. These results indicate that the English article system should be taught to L2 learners in a systematic way. These results concur with a number of studies which believe that formal instruction has a positive effect on learners of L2.

The next chapter devotes a discussion of the results from this study with regards to earlier studies and a more broad issue concerning causes of errors, grammar teaching, or form-focused instruction⁹, and pedagogical implications as suggested by this study.

5.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented the findings of the study. It showed the statistical results of two tasks used in this study, namely, a multiple choice task and a composition task. The SPSS showed that the DT group outperformed the TEI group, which in turn performed better than the CG.

⁸Systematic article instruction means formal teaching, or form-focused instruction on the article system and regular attention to the system during the period of teaching.

⁹ Doughty and Williams (1998) used the term form-focused instruction for both FoF and FofS- focused instruction.

Moreover, this chapter revealed the types of errors committed in this study. There were three main categories that had sub-categories.

In the multiple choice task, the most frequent type of error was the omission of *a/an* followed by the unnecessary insertion of *a/an*. However, in the composition task, the most frequent type of error was that of the unnecessary insertion of *a/an* followed by the unnecessary insertion of *the*. These results indicate that Libyan learners may face difficulties in acquiring the indefinite article *a/an* and the zero article Ø. This difficulty in acquiring the zero article derives from the fact that the students overused the definite article *the* in situations that require the use of the zero article, especially where the use of the generic senses requires the use of the zero article.

Furthermore, this chapter showed the sources and reasons for such errors that can be attributed to interlingual and intralingual origins.

Chapter Six

Discussion

6.0 Introduction

Essentially, this chapter will elucidate the following:

1. As mentioned earlier in chapter three of this study, the CAH was adopted to compare English and Arabic in terms of the English article systems and that the comparison resulted in 12 predictions of errors that Libyan learners may make. Chapter five presented the results and the types of errors Libyan students made in this study. Consequently, this chapter compares the results of chapter five with what was predicted in chapter three through the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) and with the results of the analysis. The predictions will be evaluated.
2. It presents more facts concerning the causes of errors, scores of the students' errors, and the effectiveness of two teaching strategies, (explicit and implicit) regarding the use of the English article system as it is the focus of this study.
3. The three teaching strategies applied in this study were used, in order to determine which one assists Libyan learners to use the English article system appropriately. It is necessary, however, to consider the bigger picture with regards to the effectiveness of teaching strategies in other aspects than the English article system. A look at other aspects, which students have learnt, is also crucial. In order to undertake this, two measurement methods were used to measure the grammatical development and lexical diversity of the students' writings. The T-unit was used to measure the grammatical development and type-token ratio (TTR) so as to determine how many different words

are used in a text. Finally, the chapter ends with a summary of the chapter, pedagogical implications, suggestions for further research and the conclusion.

The following section is a comparison of the CAH predictions with the results of chapter five. Put another way, this study sought to establish the problems Libyan students may experience in using the English article system. The data of all 3 groups and all three tests in this study were then used to counteract such problems: the results of the two types of tasks are presented to show which task the students performed better at.

6.1 The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The contrastive analysis hypothesis somewhat succeeded to some extent in predicting errors made by Libyan learners in the use of the English article system. For example, in chapter three, there were 12 predictions of some difficulties that Libyan students might face when learning the English article system. The following section presents additional information regarding this.

6.1.1 The Results of the Current Study vs. the Potential Difficulties Predicted in Chapter 3

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis was adopted in chapter three in order to predict errors Libyan learners of English might make in this study. A summary of the predictions follows below.

1. Omission

- * Omission of *a/an*

- * Omission of *the*

2. Unnecessary insertion

* Unnecessary insertion of *a/an*

* Unnecessary insertion of *the*

3. Confusion between *a/an*

6.1.1.1 Omission of *a/an* and *the*

6.1.1.1.1 Omission of *a/an*

The first problem that was predicted in chapter three is the omission of the indefinite article *a/an*. The omission of *a/an* occurred with singular countable nouns. The examples below demonstrate this:

1. *He has shop and car.*
2. *I spent long time.*
3. *I went to restaurant.*

The examples above reveal that in the multiple choice task, (in the three tests), learners omitted the indefinite article in obligatory situations **62%** of the time in the multiple choice task and **74%** of the time in the composition task. This indicates that they chose the use of zero article Ø instead of *a/an*. The reason for omitting *a/an* in examples 2 & 5 could be due to the fact that learners might believe that such nouns are uncountable and hence, no article is needed. The reason for omitting *a/an* in the other examples may be because learners were affected by their first language which requires no article in such situations. The CAH argued that, because Arabic does not have an indefinite article, Libyan learners tend to omit it in obligatory situations. The learners involved in this study made this type of error and in fact, such an error was frequently made by the participants.

In line with the present study, the studies of Guella (2008), Stehle (2009) and Alhaysony (2012) showed that Arab learners, (the participants involved in their studies) tended to omit the indefinite article in obligatory situations. According to Stehle (2009, p. 48), “having only the

definite article in a learner's L1 may make it harder for the learner to acquire an indefinite article in the L2". In addition, some studies (e.g. Castillo, 2008; Ionin et al., 2008; Isabelli-García and Slough, 2011) were conducted on L2 learners whose native languages have article systems (+ART), such as (Spanish, French and Italian) and have different language backgrounds other than Arabic. Their conclusions concurred with the results of this study and confirmed the effects of the learners' first language on learning another language. Some of the results showed that L2 learners tend to use the definite article more often than the indefinite article. For instance, Isabelli-García and Slough (2011), who conducted a study on Spanish learners of English reported that the item most similar to L1 was the least difficult to acquire and the item which was very different was the most difficult. As with English, Spanish language has both definite and indefinite articles, the only difference being that in Spanish both masculine and feminine have different indefinite and definite distinctions^{10, 11}. Additionally, Spanish and English differ in certain places where definite and indefinite articles are used. In Spanish, indefinite articles are omitted before professions, thus, if this rule is transferred to English, the following errors will be the result: *That man is fireman, She is teacher*. As with Spanish, professions are not preceded by an article in Arabic, (e.g. *She is English teacher* "Heya Moalemat logha injelezeyah" / *he is dentist* 'Huwa Tabeeb isnaan"). Accordingly, learners might omit the indefinite article *a/an* when influenced by their first language.

¹⁰ English has only plural/ singular distinctions, plus vowel and consonant beginnings, whereas Spanish has plural/singular distinction/ masculine-feminine distinctions. For that reason, Spanish has a full set of number and gender form which includes the neuter.

¹¹ Although Spanish has an indefinite article, its use differs from the indefinite article in English (for more information read: Comparative Analysis of the Articles System in English and Spanish by Angela Castillo.

6.1.1.1.2 Omission of *the*

Another error of omission was the omission of *the* in obligatory situations. The examples below demonstrate this:

4. *She is third girl.*
5. *She is best friend.*
6. *First thing I did was sleeping.*

The omission of *the* in obligatory situations in the three tests occurred with a percentage of **34%** in the multiple choice task and **31%** in the composition task. It can be noted that the omission of *a/an* has a higher percentage than that of the omission of *the* in the two tasks, (the multiple choice task and the composition task). This result partially supports the prediction of the CAH, which predicted that Libyan learners of English tend to omit *a/an* more than *the*. Moreover, in order to ensure this result, a paired sample t-test was used to compare the percentages of the uses of *the* and *a/an* in the three tests. The results showed that there were significant differences between the two types of omission: **$t(89) = 14.920, p < 0.001$** .

Based on the CAH, learners omitted *the* in the above examples because they thought that English was similar to Arabic regarding the use of *the* with ordinal numbers and with superlative adjectives. In Arabic, a zero article is required with such structures, whereas in English there are some words, (such as first, next, last) whose meaning is related to uniqueness that require a definite article to precede them. (See section 3.7.1.6)

However, although the CAH partially succeeded in predicting some errors, there are some predicted errors that occurred very rarely in this study. For instance, the CAH predicted that

Libyan learners of English tend to omit the definite article with superlative adjectives (in obligatory contexts). This kind of error occurred only 7 times with a percentage of **8%** in the composition task. $(7 \div 90 \times 100)^{12}$

7. *He is best friend.* (3 times)
8. *It was most important event*
9. *It is most beautiful cities*
10. *She is most caring mother*
11. *I got highest scores*

Moreover, the CAH predicted that Libyan learners would omit the definite article with cataphoric reference to *the* (i.e. *of phrase*). *Of* phrases are the English equivalent of (*IDaafa*) in Arabic (Kharama, 1981). Kharama (1981) conducted a study to analyse the errors committed by Arab University students in Kuwait. He demonstrated that using the English definite article with nouns predicting the *of*-phrase was problematical for the participants in his study and he attributed this to the interference of L1 due to the differing patterns of definiteness for the nouns in the genitive construction (*IDaafa*) in Arabic. In the present study, such an error occurred only 17 times throughout the test with a percentage of **24%**. $(17 \div 70 \times 100)$

12. *This is tradition of Libya.*
13. *I went to farm of my uncle.*
14. *I study at faculty of Arts.*

6.1.1.2 Unnecessary Insertion of *a/an* and *the*

Another kind of error that was predicted by the CAH in chapter three is the unnecessary insertion of *a/an* and *the*. The unnecessary insertion of *a/an* occurred with a percentage of **19%** in the multiple choice task, (in all tests) and **30%** in the composition task (in all tests).

¹²7 refers to the number of the wrong answers and 90 refers to the total uses of the definite article (*the*) with superlative adjectives.

The unnecessary insertion of *the* occurred with a percentage of **15%** in the multiple choice task (in all tests) and **26%** in the composition task (in all tests). The results show that the unnecessary insertion of the articles *a/an* and *the* is less frequent than the omission of *a/an* and *the*.

Such a disparity could be attributed to the fact that omission errors are simplification errors, (hence more frequent) and insertion errors are complex errors. This kind of error (unnecessary insertion of *a/an* and *the*) takes place in situations where learners use the indefinite article with uncountable nouns, proper nouns, names of meals and cities that need no articles. The examples below demonstrate this:

15. *I like the meat.*
16. *I stayed at the home.*
17. *I went to the shopping.*
18. *We had the dinner at 8:30.*
19. *I visited the Morocco.*
20. *I came home and I had a lunch.*
21. *She has a nice charisma.*
22. *She has a nice hair.*
23. *She has a beautiful eyes.*
24. *He has a big ears.*

Such errors could occur for several reasons. First of all, learners could be affected by their first language. They may think in Arabic and translate their thoughts into English. Second, it could be for intralingual reasons. For example, learners might use formulaic language (chunks) that might result in the making of errors. Formulaic language means that learners learned a group of words, (e.g. this is a.....) and start using it in situations that require or do not require its presence. Third, such errors can be attributed to an inaccurate application of rules due to a lack of understanding of how to use an article, or it could be ignorance of rules resulting in failure

to apply the rules for the use of an article. For instance, in the example “*I like the Morocco*”, the article ‘*the*’ should not be used before Morocco, as it requires no article.

Although the CAH predicted such an error, this may be due to reasons other than the learners’ first language. For instance, the overuse of *a/an* with uncountable and plural nouns is potentially an intralingual error. This suggestion arises from the following facts:

1. Libyan learners’ overuse of the indefinite article with uncountable nouns can be attributed to their lack of knowledge of some nouns and whether they were countable or not.
2. Their overuse of *a/an* with plural nouns occurred with nouns that have two parts, (eyes, ears and lips). In this instance, learners may think that as they were describing one person, they treated them as singular nouns and used *a/an*. In other words, learners copy the same structures and over generalize the use of *a/an* with singular and plural nouns.

6.1.1.3 Confusion between *a/an*

The CAH predicted that Libyan learners might confuse *a* and *an*.

25. *He is a electrician.*
26. *We spent a interesting time in the park.*
27. *She has an nose.*
28. *After a hour I left home.*
29. *She is a excellent cook.*

These errors occurred in few cases. Such an error cannot be attributed to only Arabic; it could be an intralingual error. One of the causes of such an error is learners’ lack of knowledge of phonetic rules. For example, as mentioned previously, the use of *a* instead of *an* occurred in situations in which the first letter of a noun was silent and the second letter was a vowel, but learners used *a* instead of *an* because they believed that the first letter was a consonant and

hence, the noun required *a*. In other words, there was widespread confusion amongst students regarding the rules and exceptions to the rules of article usage.

What is more, it might be difficult to recognize the exact causes of errors made by L2 learners. In other words, what might cause the errors that L2 learners make in general and Libyan learners make in particular. The following section sheds light on what might cause such errors.

6.2 The Sources of Errors

The CAH, which was adopted in this study, showed that learners' first language (interference) was the least repeated source of errors. Additionally, some errors that occurred within the target language (i.e. intralingual errors) were discovered in this study. The following sections discuss these sources.

6.2.1 Causes of the English Article Errors Committed in this Study

A part from first language interference, the target language may cause difficulties in using the English article system correctly. Interestingly, the present study showed that Libyan learners overused the indefinite article commonly in some situations and omitted it in obligatory situations before and after the treatment. The following sub-sections provide more explanations of the causes of the errors.

6.2.1.1 The Effect of English Nouns

In English, nouns can be countable, uncountable or both. These nouns require different ways of using them. For instance, countable nouns have plural forms which require determiners, whereas uncountable nouns do not have plural forms and usually do not need a determiner. As the English article system is one type of determiner, choosing which type of article to use is sometimes affected by the noun which the article is attached to.

- **The Use of *a/an* with Uncountable Nouns and Plural Nouns**

In the three tests in this study, it was noticed that Libyan learners used *a/an* with uncountable nouns and plural nouns. The reason for such errors could be attributed to the fact that Libyan learners have difficulty in developing an insight into whether an English noun is countable or uncountable. Learners treated uncountable nouns as countable ones and over generalised the rule of using *a/an* before them, making an odd structure in some areas.

Moreover, as mentioned earlier, learners' use of *a/an* with plural nouns occurred with nouns that have two parts, (e.g. eyes, ears and hands). Learners probably used *a/an* with such nouns because they thought that *a/an* should be used given that they were describing one singular person.

In addition, some English nouns, (e.g. time and crime) could be both countable (bounded) and uncountable (unbounded). A noun like *glass*, for instance, can be interpreted either as bounded, (i.e. She broke a glass) or unbounded, (i.e. this window is made of glass). These nouns could prevent learners from recognising whether the noun in a certain context is bounded or not.

- **The Use of *the* with Generic Nouns**

What is more, in some examples (e.g. I like _____ Italian food very much), learners might understand that the existence of an adjective followed by a noun is a sign for using a definite article. Most participants used the definite article *the* to complete the example. The participants may develop a rule from this, considering that the word *food* is specific because it

is preceded by the expression *Italian* which narrows down the meaning of *food*. The phrase *Italian food* refers in the instance to the notion of Italian food in general. Consequently, the definite article should be left out to avoid an unexpected structure.

From the above discussion it can be concluded that Libyan learners in some contexts might know the rule of using *a/an* but be unable to apply it because they sometimes were unable to identify which nouns to use in certain contexts.

6.2.1.2 The Effect of Definiteness and Specificity

Definiteness and indefiniteness are the features of noun phrases in contexts, and according to Hawkins et al. (2009, p. 16) “definiteness and indefiniteness are the only discourse-related features that underlie article choice.”

Definite noun phrases can be specific and identifiable in a given context, whereas indefinite noun phrases are not specified and identified in context. The choice of article is affected by whether a noun phrase, which is in a context, is specific and identifiable or not. A definite noun phrase refers to a particular individual in a specific reference indicating that both the speaker and hearer are familiar with what is being talked about. An indefinite noun is a noun phrase which refers to an individual in a general reference indicating that the speaker does not identify things or people and the hearer does not know any detail about the thing or people. In other words, definiteness is associated with knowledge shared by the speaker and hearer (Ionin et al., 2004, p. 2). Ionin et al. (2004, p.2) defined definiteness and specificity as:

If a determiner phrase (DP) of the form is...

- a. [+definite], then the speaker and hearer presuppose the existence of a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP.
- b. [+specific], then the speaker intends to refer to a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP and considers this individual to possess some noteworthy property.

Moreover, definiteness and specificity of a noun phrase, (see sections 3.2 and 3.3) are usually related to its semantic function in a context, thus, they are usually used to explain the semantic effect of a context for the article choice. The feature [\pm definite] refers to whether both the speaker and hearer share knowledge of what is being talked about in their discourse. The feature [\pm specific] refers to whether the speaker specifies the noun being talked about or not. Therefore, there are four kinds of contexts for the noun phrase, which require different kinds of articles.

Wong (2007, p. 215) revealed that the definite article *the* [+def] could be used in singular contexts as well as plural contexts regardless of [+spe] or [-spe] features, and *a* [-def] can be used only in singular contexts regardless of [+spe] or [-spe] features. Therefore, the first type [+def] [+spe] context only requires the definite article *the*. Some of the sentences from the multiple choice task used in the present study belong to this type.

- I live in a house [-def, +spe] in a street [-def, +spe], the street [+def, +spe] is called ‘Bear Street’ and the house [+def, +spe] is beautiful but very old- more than 200 years old!
 - Could you turn off the light [+def, +spe] when you leave.
- a. Light b. a light c. the light

The first example shows that when *house* and *street* are first mentioned, there is no assumption of the unique *house/street* between the speaker and hearer, and only the speaker knows which *house/street* is being referred to, thus, it is a [-def, +spe] condition, and the indefinite article *a* is used in front of the singular forms of the countable nouns *house/street*. However, in the

second part of the sentence, *house/street* is mentioned for the second time, so the hearer is expected to know the existence of a unique *house/street*. In addition, the speaker identifies the specific *house/street* in which he/she lives, therefore, this is a [+def, +spe] condition and the definite article *the* is used.

The second example requires the definite article *the* because both the speaker and hearer share mutual knowledge of the noun *light* which is being talked about. As regards this sentence, the percentage of errors made by learners was **60%** in the pre-test, **57%** in post-test 1 and **73%** in post-test 2. Such responses reveal that all percentages before and after the treatment were not above chance¹³. This means that error rates were high before and after the treatment. This indicates that Libyan learners face difficulty in using the appropriate article when specificity is required.

The above mentioned discussion shows that Libyan students have a problem in acquiring the English article system. As mentioned in the previous chapter, there was a disparity in the students' responses, whereby some students performed better than the others in being able to use the English article system appropriately. What caused these differences? What advantage does each group have compared to the others?

As mentioned earlier, this study included three groups of students; each group was instructed using a different teaching strategy. Is it the teaching strategy that led to the improvement of one group by contrast to another in using the English article system? With regards to the performance of using the article system in each group, the results of the TEI group and the CG

¹³ 1-49 = below chance
50-74 = at chance
75-100 = above chance

indicate that the number of errors was reduced very slightly, whereas for the DT group, the errors were reduced considerably.

However, it should be kept in mind that the use of a certain teaching strategy depends on what the desired goal is for using it. In other words, when a certain teaching strategy is used with a number of students, what benefit do those students acquire by using it? Since the participants in this study were taught using three different teaching strategies, consideration of how each group benefited from the specific teaching strategy assigned to it is required.

6.3 The Present Study vs. the Effectiveness of form-Focused Instruction

Three teaching strategies were used in this study to test which one would be the most appropriate method for teaching the English article system to Libyan learners of English at Garyounis University in Benghazi, Libya. These strategies are: an explicit deductive teaching strategy, an implicit textual enhanced input strategy and the control group which received teaching based on exposure to an amount of reading passages. After the treatment, it was established that the use of a certain teaching strategy may affect the performance of students compared with the others.

6.3.1 The English article system and Systemic Form-Focused Instruction

The findings of this study provide experimental evidence of the usefulness of Master's (1997) pedagogical framework and demonstrate that the carrying out of article teaching is helpful to students whose level is classified as intermediate. Moreover, the present study supports the claim of Master (1994, p.6) in which he suggested that "the English article system is teachable through systematic instruction." The results of this study propose that the English article

system could be consciously raised using formal and systematic instruction regardless of the linguistic complexity of the grammatical items.

More notably, the present study is noteworthy in that it tested the longevity of the teaching effects after instruction, and considered that the effect of instruction may endure. The post-test 2 was performed for the reason that it might bridge the gap between article learning and article acquisition. It responds to the criticisms targeting previous research, (e.g. Long, Inagaki, and Ortega, 1998) which suggested that formal instruction is useful, but is based only on short-term effects noticed immediately after the instruction.

6.3.2 Do Students benefit more from Explicit or Implicit Teaching Strategies?

As mentioned earlier in the previous chapter, 3 groups of first year Libyan students at Garyounis University were included in the study. Each group was taught a course in English using a different teaching strategy. The measurement of learning used in this study consisted of two tasks: a multiple choice task and a composition task prior to, and after, the instruction. The results showed various discrepancies among the three groups. The following sections discuss the results that each teaching strategy caused in each group.

6.3.2.1 Teaching Strategies Used in this Study

Three teaching strategies were adopted in this study. They were: textual enhanced input, deductive teaching and exposure to language through reading passages. The results of statistics using SPSS in chapter 5 revealed that compared with the use of the English article system, the group that was taught using the deductive teaching strategy outperformed the group that was

taught using the enhanced input strategy, which in turn performed better than the third group, (the control group). This outperformance was in the learners' use of the English article system.

6.3.2.1.1 The Scores of Students

The following table (Table 6.1) presents the scores from the multiple choice task of the 30 students involved in each group. It shows the level of scores which were below chance, at chance and above chance.¹⁴

Table 6.1 The Scores that are Below, at and Above Chance in the Three Tests of Each Group.

G	Test	Chance →	Below chance	At chance	Above chance
TEI	Pre-test		2	24	4
	Post-test1		Ø	19	11
	Post-test2		Ø	24	6
DT	Pre-test		3	25	2
	Post-test1		Ø	5	25
	Post-test2		Ø	8	22
CG	Pre-test		Ø	25	5
	Post-test1		Ø	23	7
	Post-test2		Ø	26	4

As shown in the above table, in the TEI group, the scores of students in post-test 1 that are above chance were better than the ones in the pre-test. Although the scores of post-test 2 reduced, they remained better than the scores from the pre-test. This result proves that this group improved slightly when using the English article system from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2. For the DT group, the scores of students in post-test 1 and post-test 2 that are above chance were much better than the ones in the pre-test. This result shows that this group improved considerably when using the English article system from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2.

¹⁴The multiple choice task contains 30 sentences and each point worth one score. One point was assigned for each correct answer. The standard of chance was obtained as follows:

1-9 = below chance

10-19= at chance

20-30= above chance

Regarding the CG, as shown in the above table, the scores of students in post-test 1 that are above chance improved slightly compared to the ones in the pre-test as regards the use of the article system and that the scores in post-test 2 reduced from those in the pre-test. This result means that the progress of this group in using the English article system from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2 was very slow.

Generally, from the above discussion it can be concluded that the TEI and DT groups had improved from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2 in the use of the English article system. As regards the CG, its improvement in post-test 1 did not remain 6 months after. However, since the time that was spent in teaching the three groups was 8 weeks, it is necessary to know what aspects other than the English article system the students made progress in. That is, what benefit each group had from the teaching strategy it was taught with, whether the texts that were written by the students differ and improved from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2? In order to identify this, two kinds of measurements were used: (1) the measurement of grammatical development using T-unit¹⁵ and (2) the measurement of lexical diversity using *type-token ratio* (TTR).

6.4 The Measurement of Grammatical Development Using T-unit

Chapter 5 revealed that the performance of the TEI group in using the English article system has improved slightly from pre-test to post-tests 1, 2. And for the DT group the performance has improved notably from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2. The progress of the CG in using the English article system correctly was slow from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2,

¹⁵Hunt (1964) defines T-unit as “a unit consisting of a main clause and any subordinating clauses”

Nevertheless, the type of sentences, word length and how accurate the students' writings are (i.e. vocabulary and accuracy growth) should be traced as a key facet of measuring language development and syntactic complexity in each group.

In previous studies, measures for syntactic complexity included the following:

1. The number of subordinate clauses per clause (Wigglesworth, 1997),
2. The number of words per T-unit (Bygate, 2001 and Daller et al., 2003),
3. The number of clauses per C-unit (Robinson, 2001), and
4. The number of subordinate clauses per T-unit (Mehnert, 1998).
5. The number of words per T-unit and the sum of subordination seem to be the most common used to measure syntactic complexity.

A T-unit measurement is used in this study to measure syntactic complexity in each group. It was used as it provides an intuitively satisfying and stable index of language development, and also because it is a global measure of linguistic development. As an objective measure, several researchers, (e.g. Larsen-Freeman and Strom, 1977; Laufer and Nation, 1995) successfully used T-unit analysis in their studies, in order to evaluate the quality of L2 learners' writings,

According to Gaies (1980), a T-unit is used to measure the overall syntactic complexity of writing samples. It is defined by Hint (1964) as "consisting of a main clause plus all subordinate clauses and non-clausal structures that are attached to or embedded in it." Moreover, Maminta (1969, p.7) defined it as "the shortest grammatically complete sentence which consists of one independent clause and all the subordinate clauses attached to it."

The procedure of using t-unit analysis in this study was as follows:

The length of the T-unit in words was calculated as follows: each student's paragraphs in each test were divided into T-units, and then divided into the total number of all words, in order to obtain the average length of the T-unit. The example below demonstrates.

Last weekend I do a lot of things. # First, all of my family go to beautiful place in Berga. # Second, we went to see the amazing view. # It is the sea. # I love to watch the sea and the sunset. # the third is visit my old friend and talked about the old nights. # I really miss all the things that related to Berga and with old friends. #

There are 7 T-units and 67 words for 10 (i.e. $67 \div 7 = 10$) words per T-unit.

The next step was that the average length of T-unit for each student was entered into the statistical program SPSS, in order to conduct one-way ANOVA to determine any differences among the three groups before and after the treatment. (See table 6.2)

Table 6.2 Mean Length of T-units

Mean scores						
Group	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
TEI	9.87	1.167	13.50	1.943	11.03	1.033
DT	10.13	1.196	11.83	1.262	10.30	1.343
CG	10.10	1.155	13.17	1.821	11.47	1.408

The results from the ANOVA (Table 6.2) revealed that there were no differences amongst the three groups before teaching the course. The students' levels in the pre-test (before conducting the treatment) were almost similar. $F(2, 87) = .461, p = .632$. However, in post-test 1 and post-test 2, the findings disclosed that there were significant differences amongst the three groups. In post-test 1 $F(2, 87) = 8.061, p < 0.01$ and in post-test 2 $F(2, 87) = 6.450, p < 0.01$. In order to locate those differences, a follow-up analysis, (independent sample t-test and paired sample t-test) was performed.

6.4.1 Comparison of Group Performances

6.4.1.1 Independent – sample t-test

An independent sample t-test is a follow up analysis used to compare groups: *TEI* vs. *DT*, *DT* vs. *CG*, *TEI* vs. *CG* in the three tests, whereas a paired sample t-test is a follow up analysis used to compare tests within the same groups, (for each group: *pre-test* vs. *post-test 1* and *pre-test* vs. *post-test 2*). The results are as follows:

An independent – sample t-test was conducted to compare the pre-test scores, post-test 1 and post-test 2 scores amongst the three groups. Regarding the pre-test analysis, three levels were analysed: Group *TEI* vs. *DT*, *TEI* vs. *CG* and *DT* vs. *CG*. The results show that there were no significant differences in the scores.

- **Pre-test Analysis:**

Level 1 (**group *TEI* vs. *DT***) $t(58) = -.874, p = .386$,

Level 2 (**group *TEI* vs. *CG***) $t(48) = -.778, p = .439$

Level 3: (**group *DT* vs. *CG***) $t(58) = .110, p = .913$

The results of post-test 1 analysis show that there were significant differences only between the first and the third levels (i.e. group *TEI* vs. *DT* and group *DT* vs. *CG*).

- **Post-test 1 Analysis:**

Level 1 (**group *TEI* vs. *DT***) $t(58) = 3.940, p < \mathbf{0.001}$

Level 2 (**group *TEI* vs. *CG***) $t(58) = .686, p = .496$

Level 3 (**group *DT* vs. *CG***) $t(58) = 3.30, p < \mathbf{0.001}$

Similar to the post-test 1 analysis, the post-test 2 analysis revealed that there were significant differences only between the first and the third levels.

- **Post-test 2 Analyses:**

Level 1 (**group TEI vs. DT**) $t(58) = 3.128, p < \mathbf{0.001}$

Level 2 (**group TEI vs. CG**) $t(58) = -.393, p = .696$

Level 3 (**group DT vs. CG**) $t(58) = -3.285, p < \mathbf{0.001}$

The above mentioned results suggest that the three groups had similar scores before the initiation of the treatment. Conversely, in post-test 1 and post-test 2, significant differences were detected between group pairs except for the TEI group and the CG. The mean scores of post-test 1 and post-test 2 show that both the TEI group and the CG presented better writings compared to those of the DT group. Although the mean scores of the TEI group and the CG were reduced in post-test 2, they remained better than those in the pre-test.

6.4.1.2 Paired Sample t-test Analysis

A paired-sample t-test was conducted to compare **Pre vs. post-test 1** and **Pre vs. post-test 2** for each group. The findings were as follows:

The results of the TEI group illustrated that the group had improved significantly in their performance from pre to post-test 1: $t(29) = -8.665, p < \mathbf{0.001}$ as well as from pre to post-test 2: $t(29) = -4.735, p < \mathbf{0.001}$. This result suggests that this group's grammatical development improved after 6 months of instruction.

However, the results of the DT group revealed that the performance of this group had significant differences only between pre-test and post-test 1: $t(29) = -6.067, p < \mathbf{0.001}$ but not between pre-test and post-test 2: $t(29) = -.530, p = .600$. This result suggests that, in the long term this group's grammatical development remained unchanged.

Similarly with the TEI group the results of the CG demonstrated that the grammatical development of this group had significant differences from pre-test to post-test 1: $t(29) = -$

8.262, $p < .001$ and from pre-test to post-test 2: **$t(29) = -5.080, p < .001$** . This result suggests that in the long term this group's grammatical development improved.

The results above illustrate that both groups (TEI and CG) improved their writings from pre-test to post-test 2 and the improvement remained until 6 months after post-test 2 was administered. However, with the DT group significant progress was only noticed on the immediate post-test 1, although not on post-test 2.

The T-unit was used to analyse the length of the students' writings and the extent to which they were improved. Another measurement (lexical diversity) was used to measure lexical complexity. The following section presents more details.

6.5 The Measurement of Lexical Development Using Lexical Diversity

Johansson (2008, p. 61) defined lexical diversity as “a measure of how many different words that are used in a text.” A text has high lexical diversity when it includes many different word types and has low lexical diversity when it contains many similar and repeated word types. There are various measures of lexical diversity which have been engaged in earlier studies such as: type-token ratio TTR (Robinson, 2001), D value (Kormos and Denes, 2004), and Guiraud index (Daller, et al., 2003). For the purpose of this study, the type-token ratio (TTR) is employed.

The TTR is a measure of vocabulary variation within a written text. It is used in this study because it has been demonstrated that it is a useful measure of lexical variety within a passage and can be used to examine changes in learners' vocabulary development. The example below illustrates how TTR is used.

The last weekend **I** was **in** **Egypt**. **It** **very** nice place **to** spend your holiday **in**. **I** **went** **to** swimming and **then** watched action movie. **There** **are** many cinemas **in** **Egypt**. **Then** **I** visited **the** mall **in** **the** shopping. **It** was **very** big where **there** **are** numerous floors. **I** like **the** shopping **very** much.

If the number of words in the above text is counted, it is 55. The amount of words in a passage is often referred to as the number of tokens. However, numerous tokens are repeated. For instance, the token *in* occurs four times, whilst the token *Egypt* occurs twice.

In the total of 55 tokens in the above text there are 28 so-called *types*. The type-token ratio (TTR) is referred to as the relation between the number of types and the number of tokens.

Thus, in the above example, the calculation is as follows:

Type-Token Ratio = (number of types ÷ number of tokens)
--

$$28 \div 55 = 51$$

As the paragraphs used by students in this study were not of equal length, the shortest paragraph for each student was chosen, ensuring the other paragraphs were of equal length to the shortest paragraphs by the same student. For example, the first student wrote 3 paragraphs in each test. In the first paragraph, he/she wrote 99 words, in the second 130 and 200 in the third. Since the shortest paragraph contained 99 words, the same number was chosen for the second two paragraphs, in order to have an equal length for the three paragraphs. This procedure was applied to the ninety students involved in this study.

After conducting the TTR, the percentage was put in SPSS and one-way ANOVA was performed with the purpose of establishing whether there were differences amongst the three groups. The results were as follows.

Table 6.3 Descriptive Statistics of One-way ANOVA in the Three Tests

Mean scores						
Group	Pre-test		Post-test1		Post-test2	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
TEI	64.83	4.001	78.17	5.867	71.60	5.056
DT	65.40	4.264	73.40	3.114	67.90	3.633
CG	63.79	4.057	76.55	5.883	69.90	4.685

The ANOVA findings show that there were no significant differences between the three groups before the treatment was initiated: $F(2, 86) = 1.157, p=.319$. However, the ANOVA results reveal that there were significant differences between the three groups: in post-test 1 $F(2, 86) = 6.738, p<0.01$ and post-test 2 $F(2, 86) = 5.089, p<0.01$ among the groups.

In order to locate the differences, a follow up test was performed using an independent sample t-test and a paired sample t-test. The results were as follows:

6.5.1 Comparison of Group Performances

6.5.1.1 Independent Sample t-test Analysis

With regards to this kind of analysis, three levels were analysed in the three tests: level 1 (Group TEI vs. DT) level 2 (TEI vs. CG) and level 3 (DT vs. CG). The results of the pre-test indicate that there were no significant differences in the scores for level 1: $t(58) = -.531, p=.598$, level 2: $t(57) = .992, p=.326$ and level 3: $t(57) = 1.482, p=.114$.

With respect to post-test 1 analysis, the findings show that there were significant differences only between the first and third levels (i.e. group TEI vs. DT and group DT vs. CG). That is, level 1: $t(58) = 3.931, p<0.001$ and level 3: $t(57) = -2.584, p=.012$, but not with level 2 where a different pattern was found: $t(57) = 1.056, p=.296$.

By contrast to post-test1 analysis, the post-test 2 analysis demonstrated that there were significant differences only in the first level. That is, level 1: $t(58) = 3.931, p < 0.001$. However, between levels 2 and 3, there were no significant differences between them (level 2: $t(57) = 1.341, p = .185$ and level 3: $t(57) = -1.833, p = .072$).

The above results suggest that before the experiment, the students' levels were similar and immediately after the treatment, only the TEI group and the CG improved and used various vocabularies in their writings. However, after 6 months of instruction, only the TEI group remained unchanged and the students did not repeat many words in their writings.

6.5.1.2 Paired Sample t-test Analysis

The findings of this analysis were as follows:

When comparing pre-test with post-test 1 and pre-test with post-test 2, the results illustrate that the three groups improved significantly in using various vocabularies from pre-test to post-test 1 and from pre-test to post-test 2. The results were as follows:

1. **TEI group** *pre - post-test 1* $t(29), -9.542, p < 0.01$.

Pre- post-test 2 $t(29), -7.024, p < 0.01$.

2. **DT group** *pre-post-test 1* $t(29), -8.605, p < 0.01$.

pre- post-test 2 $t(29), -2.972, p < 0.01$.

3. **The CG** *pre- post-test 1* $t(28), -10.463, p < 0.01$.

Pre- post-test 2 $t(28), -6.829, p < 0.01$.

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that each teaching strategy has its own effects in teaching. No teaching strategy has a distinct advantage over another. However, the purpose of teaching determines which strategy is more beneficial compared to another. For example,

TEI groups and the CG improved their writings and used varied vocabularies in the three tests, whereas the DT group developed their use of the English article system more than the other two groups.

Although a considerable amount of time was devoted to teach the three groups involved in this study, Libyan learners still make errors in their use of the English article system. What causes such difficulty? The following section presents some explanations.

6.6 Difficulty vs. Instruction

The English article system poses great difficulty for non-native learners in general and for Libyan learners of English in particular. But does such difficulty entail that the English article system is beyond teaching? Second language theories have different views on how the English article system is taught for L2 learners: some views, (e.g. a deductive teaching strategy) advocate formal and systematic attention to isolated linguistic forms through rules, drills and error correction; some, (e.g. a purely communicative teaching strategy) reject such techniques and support unconscious natural language exposure similar to children acquiring their mother tongue language. Other methods, (e.g. enhanced input strategy) state that in order for acquisition to take place, teachers should pay attention to both linguistic forms and meaning by providing learners with enhanced input techniques in context to help them notice the target forms.

However, the research findings concerning the deductive teaching approach has been criticised by researchers such as Celce-Murcia et al. (1997) on the basis that it provides fewer opportunities for learners to think and infer a concept for themselves. Moreover, Shaffer (1989) believed that there might be a gap between teaching and learning. Thus, students could deduce grammatical rules and practice them, but in real life communication, they may not

reveal what they have learnt. Additionally, Sato (1990) claimed that such instruction may lead to non-target-like use of target forms.

Communicative language teaching strategies have shown that they might not be sufficient for learners to achieve the necessary proficiency level for effective language use, because there is often a lack of grammatical accuracy. Some researchers (e.g. Ellis, 1998; Nassaji, 2000, 2004; and Macaro, 2006) believed that grammatical competence is crucial for communication but it cannot be achieved only by exposure to meaningful input. As a result, implicit approaches on their own to grammar may not be adequate and that a degree of focus on grammatical elements is necessary for L2 acquisition.

Form-focused instruction is considered to be necessary for a variety of reasons. For instance, the hypothesis which states that language can be learned by a degree of unconsciousness was found to be theoretically problematic. According to Schmidt (1993; 2001), conscious attention to form, (he also calls it *noticing*) is necessary for language learning. Many researchers, including Bialystok (1994), Dekeyser (1998), Robinson (1995, 2001), Nassaji and Swain (2000), Swain and Lapkin (2001) Zhisheng (2008) and Al-Hejin (2009), support Schmidt's view that noticing target forms has a crucial role in L2 learning.

Though there are numerous studies in the literature regarding the comparative examination of the effect of explicit teaching strategies, this study could be regarded as a further support for implicit teaching strategies. That is, the results of this study suggest a balanced approach, (which is Fof teaching strategies) for the reason that traditional teaching may not lead learners to improve their writings and purely communicative teaching strategies may not lead learners to improve their use of grammatical items appropriately. Consequently, an enhanced input teaching strategy proved to be useful as it connects between the traditional teaching and

communicative teaching. Put another way, the learners in the TEI group in this study improved both the use of the English article system and their writings.

Moreover, it is worth mentioning that the results of this study support the opinions of some researchers (Eastwood, 1999), who believe that the English article system should not be taught in isolation. The article system should be taught in context in a manner that its functions can be understood and naturally acquired, which is better than the present method of viewing article usage as a group of abstract rules to be memorised. Implicit teaching strategies are recommended as an alternative to explicit teaching strategies in that the former may assist learners, even slightly, to improve their use of the article system as well as their writings, whereas the latter may assist them to improve their use of the article system.

When looking at the results from another perspective, the following can be observed:

Although the three groups involved in this study made some progress in using the English article system, this progress was modest. When the amount of time provided to teach the three groups was considered, the results should have been much better than they were. However, the question that should be asked is: What are the reasons behind the difficulty in acquiring the English article system? The results of this study reveal that not only teaching strategies affect the acquisition of the English article system, but there are other aspects that may affect such acquisition. These aspects can be summarized as follows:

- Libyan learners' inability to distinguish between countable/uncountable and singular/plural noun forms. Such a problem leads to misuse of the right article. Accordingly, when learners make such errors, the problem is not in the use of the article system itself, but in identifying the type of noun being used.

- The amount of time devoted to teach the article system to L2 learners might not be sufficient. The English article system is complex due to the vastness and complexity and exceptions to its rules. Such a complication needs more time and a sufficient teaching technique to be performed. For instance, when teaching the use of *a/an* with singular countable nouns, teachers should allow more time for learners to practice such use in a communicative way not in a traditional way. By doing so, learners can benefit twice: learning the use of the correct article and improving their communication at the same time.
- Among the reasons underlying errors in using the article system, learners might find certain concepts difficult to understand and they confirm their need to translate some of the items into their native languages as a last resort, in order to respond to the items.
- Teachers may feel that article errors are not problematic enough to pay attention to because they often do not cause communication to break down. This concurs with what Burt (1975) believed, which is that article errors are only local errors and they differ from global errors in that they do not hinder communication. However, the correct and incorrect use of articles does not usually affect understanding.

6.7 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented a discussion of the results of the study. It compared the results of chapter 5 with what was predicted through the CAH in chapter 3. It confirmed the types of errors predicted previously: omission of *a/an /the*, unnecessary insertion of *a/an/ the* and confusion between *a* and *an*. The results reveal that the percentage of omission of *a/an* was

higher than the omission of *the*. Moreover, it was recognized that the percentage of unnecessary insertion of *a/an/the* was less than the omission of *a/an/the*.

What is more, this chapter discussed the sources of errors which could be summarized as:

1. The influence of the learners' first language.
2. The difficulty in developing an intuition of whether a noun is countable or uncountable.
3. The use of the definite article with generic nouns, and
4. The difficulty is using the appropriate article when specificity is concerned.

The chapter also compared the three teaching strategies used in this study in terms of effectiveness in using the English article system, measuring grammatical development using the T-unit and measuring lexical diversity using TTR.

Regarding the effectiveness of using the English article appropriately, the DT group showed improvement from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2. The scores that were above chance in post-test 1 & 2 were better than those in pre-test. For the TEI group the scores that were above chance slightly improved from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2. The scores of the CG improved slightly in post-test 1, but the improvement reduced slightly in post-test 2.

Regarding the measurement of grammatical development, a T-unit was used to measure grammatical development. The average length of T-unit of each student was put into the statistical program SPSS in order to conduct one-way ANOVA. The results revealed that there were no differences amongst the groups before performing the experiment and differences existed after the experiment. A follow-up test was performed with the aim of locating these differences. The independent sample-t-test demonstrated that the TEI group and the CG

showed better development than the DT group in post-tests 1 & 2. Moreover, the paired sample t-test results showed the TEI group and the CG showed significant improvement from pre-test to post-tests 1 & 2.

However, the DT groups showed significant differences only from pre-test to post-test 1, but not from pre-test to post-test 2.

The measurement of lexical diversity was undertaken using TTR. Once again, one-way ANOVA did not reveal any differences amongst the groups before teaching and showed differences after the groups were taught. The independent sample t-test showed that both the TEI group and the CG presented better results than the DT group in post-test 1. In post-test 2, only the TEI group improved significantly. This result suggests that the TEI group remained unchanged after 6 months of instruction.

The paired sample t-test showed that the 3 groups used varied vocabularies and improved from pre-test to post-test 1.2.

The next section presents limitations which this study encountered.

6.8 Limitations of the Study

As with any research, this study has some limitations. They are as follows:

1. The participants involved in the present study were of intermediate proficiency level. It would be an idea to conduct additional research, which includes students of different proficiency levels.
2. Tests of verbal production may be included in the study to measure the effect of teaching on communicative ability.

3. The study was conducted in three intermediate classes which lasted for eight weeks. Eight weeks is not enough time for the researcher to provide further explanation and more lessons. It would be better if it was undertaken over a longer period of time.
4. Neither a questionnaire nor comment-response was involved in this study. Such ways may help to provide additional facts about the sources of errors made by students.
5. The data collection was confined only to first year students at Garyounis University in Benghazi. The replication of the study at other Libyan cities would allow better generalization of the research findings.
6. The sample used in this study was comprised of 90 students. This sample is only a small proportion of the total population of 1st year students at the University of Garyounis. Therefore, research studies with a large sample size would be required to certify suitable generalization of the results from the study.

6.9 Pedagogical Implications

1. This study points that minimal interference from L1 (interlingual errors) and insufficient competence of L2 (intralingual errors) are the key source of errors. This result is very important in learning the target language, as when the causes of errors are identified, a remedial instruction could be carefully arranged.
2. Adopting Error Analysis allows foreign language instructors and researchers to have a superior understanding of the linguistic part where students encounter problems during the process of learning. The facts presented by the analysis of students' errors may assist teachers to decide their technique of teaching.
3. When accuracy is taken into account, second language teachers should concentrate on the most frequent errors and attempt to help learners to overcome such errors by means

of a variety of materials. They can conduct remedial instruction using more training and skills associated with the challenging area of the target items.

4. Teachers should be familiar with concentrating on form techniques, particularly implicit teaching techniques because they keep the communicative environment in the language classes. Accordingly, it would be logical to assign some time to train teachers in this crucial skill.

6.10 Suggestions for Further Research

1. This study was limited to only two methods of teaching; similar studies could be performed with other teaching techniques, (implicit techniques or explicit techniques).
2. A replication of the present study is required, in order to confirm the findings either by using the same methodology or with different populations, or by using different methodologies with the same populations.
3. More contrastive error analysis studies involving more languages are desirable, so as to determine more evidence of the nature of learning strategies and interlanguage.
4. Similar research could be prepared as regards written and production development of other English structures.

6.11. Conclusion

This study has sought to determine the complexity in learning the English article system by L2 learners in general and by Libyan learners in particular. In order to understand the difficulty in learning the English article system, the researcher adopted three strategies: the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), Error analysis and applying two teaching strategies (explicit and

implicit), namely, deductive teaching strategy (DT) and textual input enhancement teaching strategy (TEI).

The CAH was adopted to compare the article systems in English and Arabic. The comparison resulted in 12 predictions which were expected to be made by Libyan learners of English. Although the CAH predicted that the acquisition of the definite article would be easy to acquire and have very few errors, if none, could take place, errors of this use occurred more than expected. Moreover, based on the comparison of the article systems in both languages, the acquisition of the zero and indefinite article could be problematic for Libyan learners and more errors would occur. The results showed that such errors occurred more frequently than expected. This result suggests that Arabic language has a minimal effect on learners in the process of learning.

Error analysis was utilized, in order to determine the kinds of errors made by Libyan learners. There were three types: Omission errors, unnecessary insertion of errors (Overgeneralization), and Confusion errors. The omission of the indefinite article *a/an* was the most frequent error category in this study (See section 5.8). Moreover, based on the types of errors, in the multiple choice task, the most frequent type of errors was the omission of *a/an* followed by the unnecessary insertion of *a/an*, whereas in the composition task, the most frequent type of mistakes was the unnecessary insertion of *a/an* followed by the unnecessary insertion of *the*.

In connection with the effectiveness of teaching strategies in the process of learning, three different teaching strategies were used in this study to teach the English article system to three groups of first year Libyan students at the University of Garyounis. Two tasks used in this study, namely, a multiple choice task and a composition task as a measure of the process of learning. The TEI group received textual enhanced input teaching, the DT group was instructed by using deductive teaching, and the CG, (the control group) was exposed to

language through reading texts. The SPSS results revealed that the DT group performed better than the TEI group and the CG in using the English article system. With regard to the measurement of grammatical development, the TEI group and the CG outperformed the DT group. Moreover, when measuring lexical diversity, the TEI group showed better results than the other two groups.

Finally, it is hoped that the interpretations of the results of this study will contribute to the endless debate on the causes of errors, (intralingual or interlingual sources) and in using explicit or implicit teaching strategies in teaching the English article system to L2 learners. Understanding the underlying causes of errors in using the English article could potentially inform research about facts on the teaching and learning of the English article system in a more promising way.

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Appendix A

Multiple Choice task and composition task

Version 1

Name:

Group:.....

Q1: Decide which word or words are correct

1. Sally goes to _____ by car.
a) work b) a work c) the work
2. Can I have _____ from your bag?. Yes, of course.
a) an apple b) some apple c) the apple
3. _____ is my favourite sport.
a) Golf b) A golf c) The golf
4. _____ starts at eight o'clock.
a) School b) A school c) The school.
5. We had _____ nice time at the zoo last week.
a) the b) a c) Ø
6. David opened a drawer and took out _____.
a) photos b) photo c) some photos
7. Can you play _____?
a) violin b) a violin c) the violin
8. They can finish the rest of the bread for _____.
a) breakfast b) a breakfast c) the breakfast
9. While she was in hospital, they gave her _____.
a) X-ray b) a X-ray c) an X-ray
10. You can listen to _____.
a) radio b) radios c) the radio
11. We need to protect _____ from pollution.
a) environment b) some environment c) the environment
12. What did Sally buy at the supermarket? She bought _____.

- a) two milk b) two cartons of milk c) two milks

13. He should do _____ housework.

- a) a b) many c) some

14. This room has _____ nice sofa.

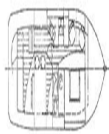
- a) some b) a c) zero article

15. The gas explosion caused _____ to the factory.

- a) some damages b) some damage c) a damage

Q2: Complete the story about the theft of a river barge. Put in *a, an, or the*.

This istrue story aboutman who chose.....worst possible time for his crime. It happened in London insummer of 1972.man stole a barge on..... River Thames (in case you don't know,barge is a river boat used for carrying goods).owner of barge soon discovered that it was missing and immediately informed.....police so that they could look for it. Normally river is.....busy place and it would be difficult to find what you were looking for. On this day, however, there was dock strike, and so there was only one barge on river.thief was quickly found and arrested.



Q3: What did you do last weekend? (Write at least 100 words)

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Q4: describe one of your relatives. Use, for example, these hints: his/her personality, hobbies, job, favourite food. (Write *at least one hundred words*)

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Note: Please make sure that you fill in all the blanks.

Version 2

Name:

Group:.....

Q1: Decide which word or words are correct.

- 1- I don't know what to do. It's _____problem.
a) quite difficult b) a quite difficult c) quite a difficult
- 2- _____ is my favourite sport.
a) football b) a football c) The football
- 3- My flat is on _____ first floor.
a) the first b) first c) a first
- 4- She did _____ in Italian literature.
a)An MA b) the MA c) MA
- 5- We spent a lot of time swimming in _____ on holiday.
a)a sea b) the sea c) sea
- 6- _____ of the United States was elected last year.
a) President b) a president c) the president
- 7- An atheist does not believe in _____.
a) a God b) the God c) God
- 8- Can I ask _____.
a) a question b)the question c) question
- 9- Where is Ann? She is in _____.
a) kitchen b) a kitchen c) the kitchen
- 10-Tom is _____.
a) interesting person b) the interesting person c) an interesting person.
- 11- Could you turn off _____ when you leave?

- a) a light b) the light c) light
- 12- His birthday is on _____ of May.
- a) the third b) third c) a third
- 13- _____ are my favourite flowers.
- a) the roses b) roses c) a roses
- 14- There is a major problem with _____ nowadays.
- a) a crime b) the crime c) crime
- 15- it is _____ house and needs some work.
- a) old b) an old c) the old
- 16- Could you take _____ you borrowed back to the library, please?
- a) the books b) books c) a books

Q2: Complete the conversation. Put in the words and decide if you need *a, an, zero* or *the*.

- a) **Martin:** I think we ought to book.....(holiday). Where shall we go?
- b) **Anna:** What about.....(Scotland)? I think Edinburgh is.....(beautiful city). I love going there.
- c) **Martin:**(weather) might not be very good.
- d) We went there at (Easter), and it was freezing, remember.
- e) **Anna:** We could have a walk along(Princes Street) and up to the castle. And I wanted to go to(Royal Scottish Museum), but we never found time.
- f) **Martin:** Can't we go somewhere different?
- g) **Anna:** We could spend some time in (Highlands), I suppose.
- h) **Martin:** When I go on holiday, I want to do something more relaxing than climbing
- i) (mountains). And I find it pretty boring.
- j) **Anna:** How can you say such (thing)?
- k) **Martin:** Actually, I'd prefer somewhere warmer and by (sea).
- l) I think (Corfu) would be nice.
- m) We might get (sunshine) there. I just want to lie on a beach.
- n) **Anna:** Martin, you know I'm not at all keen on (beach holidays).



Q3: What did you do last weekend? (Write at least 100 words)

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Q4: describe one of your relatives. Use, for example, these hints: his/her personality, hobbies, job, favourite food. (Write *at least one hundred words*)

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Note: Please make sure that you fill in all the blanks.

Version 3

Name:

Group:.....

Q1: Decide which word or words are correct

1- My friend is _____ person

- a) honest b) an honest c) a honest

2- Let's sing _____

- a) song b) a song c) an song

3- Please clean up _____. You left _____ there

- a) the bathroom b) a bathroom c) bathroom

- a) a terrible mess b) the terrible mess c) terrible mess

4- we arrived _____ at six o'clock in _____ .

- a) the home b) a home c) home
a) a morning b) the morning c) morning

5- I still keep wondering if I was doing _____ when I asked my mother for _____ to leave school.

- a) the right thing b) right thing c) a right thing
a) a permission b) permission c) the permission

6- I want to go to the cinema to see a film about _____

- a) Morocco b) the Morocco c) a Morocco

7- Everyone who works in this department uses _____

- a) a computer b) the computer c) computer

8- Be careful. Radiation from _____ can cause skin cancer.

- a) a sun b) the sun c) sun

9- Please do not stand in front of me. I can't see _____

- a) the television b) a television c) television

10- Helen has eggs and bacon for _____

- a) breakfast b) the breakfast c) a breakfast

11- When Sam was promoted at work she moved to a bigger office at _____ of the corridor.

- a) an end b) end c) the end

12- The train to Liverpool will depart from _____ in ten minutes. Will passengers board the train now?

- a) a platform 7 b) the platform 7 c) platform 7

13- Sarah went to _____ with some friends to see the Shakespeare's 'Hamlet'.

- a) theatre b) the theatre c) a theatre

Write 'a', 'an', 'the' or no article to complete the following sentences in the paragraph

I was born in Seattle, Washington. Seattle is _____ city in the United States. It is near _____ border of Canada. I live in _____ town called Olympia, in _____ house in _____ street in the countryside. _____ street is called "Bear Street" and _____ house is beautiful but very old- more than 200 years old! I am _____ English teacher at _____ school in the center of _____ town. I like books and taking photographs. I usually have _____ lunch at 1pm and go home by car. We have all kinds of food in

Olympia. I like _____ Italian food very much. Sometimes, I go to _____ Italian restaurant in Seattle. _____ restaurant is called “Luigi’s”. Italian food is great!

Q3: What did you do last weekend? (Write at least 100 words)

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Q4: describe one of your relatives. Use, for example, these hints: his/her personality, hobbies, job, favourite food. (Write at least one hundred words)

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Note: Please make sure that you fill in all the blanks.

Appendix B

A Sample Lesson Plan for group TEI

Material	English online	Unit	Money
		Student	30
		Time	45 minutes
Objectives	1- Students will be able to communicate in class 2- Learners will be provided the target structures through authentic context so that they will use them naturally in context not in isolation.		
Procedure			Time
Introduction to the lesson 1- The teacher will tell her students about the lesson and provides an overview about the text. 2- The students will be divided into groups of seven. 3- The teacher will divide the text into paragraphs and each group is going to be given a paragraph in order to read it and prepare the main points of it and then explain to the class.			10 minutes
After ten minutes, each member of each group will take part in telling the main points to class. Then the students will read the whole text by turns and the teacher asks the students if they need any help about the text (e.g. meaning of a word) before going to the questions.			20 minutes
Doing exercises The teacher gives her student time to work together and do the exercises and then she will answer them with her students and provides feedback.			15 minutes

Sample lesson

Babies are good language learners

It is hard to know what babies want. They can't talk, walk, or even point at what they're thinking about.

Yet newborns begin to develop language skills long before they begin speaking. And, compared to adults, they develop these skills quickly. People have a hard time learning new languages as they grow older, but infants have the ability to learn any language easily.

For a long time, scientists have tried to explain how such young children can learn complicated grammatical rules and sounds of a language. Now, researchers are getting a better idea of what's happening in the brains of the tiniest language learners.

This new information might eventually help kids with learning problems as well as adults who want to learn new languages. It might even help scientists who are trying to design computers that can communicate like people do.

Most babies go "goo goo" and "ma ma," by 6 months of age, and most children speak in full sentences by age 3. For decades, scientists have wondered how the brains of young children figure out how to communicate using language. With help from new technologies and research strategies, scientists are now finding that babies begin life with the ability to learn any language.

They get into contact with other people, listen to what they say and watch their movements very closely. That is why they quickly master the languages they hear most often.

Studies show that, up to about 6 months of age, babies can recognize all the sounds that make up all the languages in the world.

There are about 6,000 sounds that are spoken in languages around the globe, but not every language uses every sound. For example, while the Swedish language has 16 vowel sounds,

English uses 8 vowel sounds, and Japanese uses just 5.

Adults can hear only the sounds used in the languages they speak fluently. To a native Japanese speaker, for instance, the letters R and L sound the same. So a Japanese speaker cannot tell "row" from "low," or "rake" from "lake."



Starting at around 6 months old **a** baby's brain focuses on **the** most common sounds it hears. Then, **children** begin responding only to **the** sounds of **the** language they hear **the** most.

In **a** similar way **older** babies start recognizing **the** patterns that make up **the** rules of their native language. In **English**, for example, **children** who are about 18 months old start to figure out that **words** ending in "-ing" or "-ed" are usually **verbs**, and that **verbs** are **action** words.



Scientists are particularly interested in **the** brains of **people** who speak more than one language fluently because that is hard to do after about **age** 7.

In one experiment, for example, **native** Chinese speakers spoke **Chinese** to 9-month-old **American** babies for 12 sessions over 4 weeks. Each session lasted about 25 minutes. In **the** end, **the** **American** babies reacted to **Mandarin** sounds just as well as did **Chinese** babies who had been hearing **the** language their whole lives.

At about **the** **age** of seven these skills slow down. It gets harder to memorize **new** sounds. So, if you don't start studying **Spanish** or **Russian** until middle school, you must fight against **years** of **brain** development, and **progress** can be frustrating.

A 12-year-old's brain has to work much harder to build **language** connections than **an** infant's brain does. Yet in **the** **United States**, **learning** foreign languages usually begins as late as **high** school.

Understanding **a** baby's brain may also help **scientists** design **computers** that learn **languages** as easily as **babies** do. Useful as **computers** are, they cannot understand **a** wide range of **voices** and communicate like **people** do.

For **teenagers** and **adults** who want to learn **new** languages, **baby** studies may offer some useful tips too. For one thing, **researchers** have found that it is far better for **a** language learner to talk with **people** who speak **the** language than to use **educational** CDs and DVDs with **recorded** conversations.

When **infants** watch someone speaking **a** foreign language on **TV** they have **a** completely different experience than they do if they watch **the** same speaker in **real** life. With **real** speakers, **the** **babies'** brains become more active when they hear **the** sounds they have learned.



1) Complete the following sentences in a meaningful way.

1-When people grow older, it is harder for them.....

.....

2- Scientists have been trying to find out what happens.....

.....

By age of three.....

3- When babies get into contact with other people.....

.....

4- There are about six thousand sounds.....

.....

5- We can only hear those sounds.....

.....

6- At age of six months a baby starts concentrating.....

.....

2) True or false

1- When babies are born, they can learn any language.

2- Babies can speak full sentences when they are three.

3- There are six thousand sounds spoken in languages around world.

4- English has more vowel sounds than Swedish.

5- For Japanese all vowels sound same.

6- Scientists think that it is easier to speak two languages at same time.

3) Explain in English

infant.....

native language.....

ability.....

A Globe.....

A Brain.....

3) How important is it to learn other languages? What are the advantages of being able to speak more than one language?

<i>kös</i>	<i>dekuji</i>
	다
	
	
<i>ma</i>	<i>lanke</i>
	
	
<i>どう</i>	<i>icias</i>
	
	
	
	
	
	

The Frog Prince

There was once **a** handsome young prince who had **the** misfortune to offend **a** wicked fairy. To avenge herself she turned him into **an** ugly frog and put him into **a** well.

Now it happened that **the** well was in **the** courtyard of **a** king's palace and on **a** fine days, when **the** sun shone warmly, **the** king's youngest daughter sometimes came there to amuse herself by tossing **a** golden ball high into **the** air and catching it as it fell. **The** poor frog watched her running to and from in **the** sunshine. He thought she was **the** prettiest princess he had ever seen.

One day, **the** princess threw **the** ball up so high that when she stretched out her hand to catch it **the** ball bounced on **the** stones and fell with **a** splash into **the** water. She ran to **the** edge of **the** well and gazed down. But **the** golden ball had sunk far, far out of

a sight. Only **a** little ring of bubbles showed her where it had disappeared. She began to cry bitterly.

The frog popped his head out of **the** water. "Don't cry, **a** Princess!" he said.

"What will you give me if I bring your ball from **the** bottom of **the** well?"

"Oh, I will give you anything I have," replied **the** princess. "My pretty pearls, my diamonds—even my crown. Only please bring my ball back to me!"

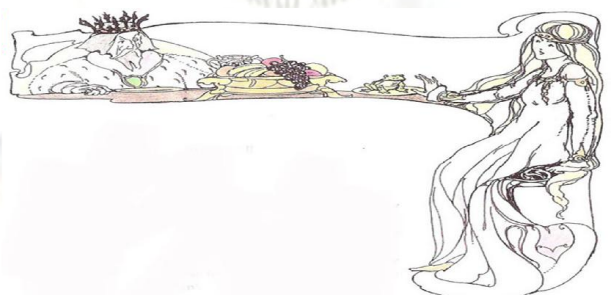
"I do not want your pearls or your diamonds or your crown," said **the** frog. "But if you will promise to love me, and let me eat from your plate, and drink out of your cup, and sleep on your bed, I will bring your ball safely back to you."

And **the** princess promised. For she said to herself, "What **a** silly frog! As if he could ever get out of **the** well and walk all **the** way to **the** palace! He will never find me."

The frog dove to **the** bottom of **the** well and presently came up with **the** golden ball in his mouth.

The princess had no sooner snatched it from him than she forgot all about her promise and ran back to **the** palace laughing with **a** joy.

The next day, as she sat at **a** dinner with **the** king and his courtiers, something came flopping up **the** great staircase—flip flap, flip flap!



And **a** voice said:

"From **the** deep and **the** mossy well,

the little princess, where I dwell,

When you wept in **the** grief and **the** pain

I brought your golden ball again."

The princess dropped her spoon with **a** clatter on her plate, for she knew it was **the** frog who had come to claim her promise.

"What is **the** matter, **the** daughter?" asked **the** king. "There is someone knocking at **the** door and your rosy cheeks are quite pale."

Then **the** princess had to tell her father all that had happened **the** day before how she had dropped her golden ball into **the** well, and how **the** frog had brought it up for her, and of **the** promises she had given him.

The king frowned and said, "**the** People who make **the** promises must keep them. Open **the** door and let **the** frog come in."

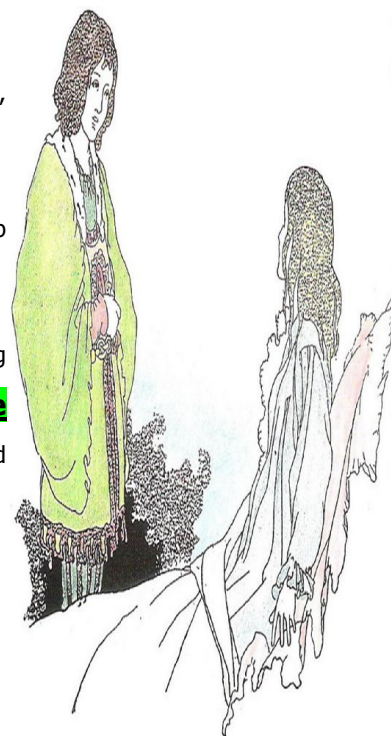
The princess opened **the** door very unwillingly and **the** poor frog hopped into **the** room, looking up into her face with his ugly little eyes.

"Lift me up beside you," he cried, "that I may eat from your plate and drink out of your cup." **The** princess did as he asked her and was obliged to finish her dinner with **the** frog beside her, for **the** king sat by to see that she fulfilled her promise. When they had finished, **the** frog said, "I have had enough to eat. Now I am tired. Take me up and lay me on your pillow that I may go to **the** sleep."

Then **the** princess began to cry. It was so dreadful to think that **a** ugly frog, all cold and damp from **the** well, should sleep in her pretty white bed.

But her father frowned again and said, "**the** People who make promises must keep them. He gave you back your golden ball and you must do as he asks."

So **the** princess picked **the** frog up between her thumb and finger, not touching him more than she could help, and carried him upstairs and put him on **the** pillow on her bed. There he slept all night long. As soon as it was light he jumped up, hopped downstairs, and went out of **the** palace.



Now, thought **the** princess, he is gone and I shall be troubled with him no more.

But she was mistaken, for when **a** night came again she heard **a** tapping at **the** door of her bedroom. When she opened it, **the** frog came in and slept upon her pillow as before until **the** morning broke. **The** third night he did **the** same. But when **the** princess awoke **the** following morning, she was astonished to see, instead of **the** frog, **a** handsome prince standing at **the** head of her bed. He was gazing at her with **the** most beautiful eyes that ever were seen.

He told her that he had been enchanted by **a** wicked fairy, who had changed him into **the** form of **a** frog, in which he was fated to remain until **a** princess let him sleep upon her bed for three nights.

"You," said **the** prince, "have broken this cruel spell and now I have nothing to wish for but that you should go with me to my father's kingdom, where I will marry you and love you as long as you live."

The princess took him to her father and he gave his consent for them to marry. As they spoke **a** splendid carriage drove up with eight beautiful horses decked with **a** plumes of **a** feathers and **a** golden harness. Behind rode **the** prince's servant, who had bewailed **the** misfortune of his dear master so long and so bitterly that his heart had almost burst. Then all set out full of **a** joy for **the** prince's kingdom. There they arrived safely and lived happily ever after.

1) Answer the following question about the story.

- 1- What does **the** wicked fairy turn **the** frog into?
.....
- 2- Where was **the** well?
.....
- 3- Does **the** king have **a** son or **a** daughter?
.....
- 4- What promise did **the** princess give to **the** frog?
.....
- 5- Does **the** princess live in **a** villa or **a** palace?
.....
- 6- What was **the** princess having with **the** king when **the** frog came flopping up **the** great staircase?
.....
- 7- How long did **the** frog stay with **the** princess?



.....

8- What happened to **the** frog after that?

.....

9- Did he marry **the** princess?

.....

2-Match each term with its definition

- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| 1- A princess | a- A small imaginary being of an human form that has an magical powers. |
| 2- A Carriage | b- an agreement that you will or will not do something. |
| 3- Ugly | c- Displeasing to the eye; unsightly |
| 4- A crown | d- A woman member of a royal family other than the monarch, especially a daughter of a monarch. |
| 5- A promise | e- A wheeled vehicle, especially a four-wheeled horse-drawn passenger vehicle, often of an elegant design. |
| 6- A Wicked fairy | f- An ornamental circlet or a head covering, often made of a precious metal set with a jewels and worn as a symbol of a sovereignty. |

3- Correct the following sentences

1- **A** wicked fairy turned **an** ugly prince into **a** handsome monster.

.....

2- **The** wicked fairy put **the** prince in **a** small cave.

.....

3- **The** princess threw **a** doll into **a** water.

.....

4- **The** frog asked **the** princess to give him all her pearls and crown.

.....

5- **The** king felt happy when he knew that his daughter did not keep her promise.

.....

Appendix C

A Sample Lesson Plan for group DT

Lesson 1

Material	Oxford Practice Grammar. English Grammar in Use.	Unit	Countable- uncountable nouns
		Student	30
		Time	45 minutes
Objectives	<p>1-Students will be able to understand the rules specifying countable- uncountable nouns and their use with <i>a, an, the, some, much</i>, and <i>many</i> in the books.</p> <p>2- Learners will be able to apply the uses of countable- uncountable nouns appropriately according to the rules.</p>		
Procedure			Time
<p>Warm-up: learners' previous knowledge about countable- uncountable nouns.</p> <p>Teacher: Good morning every body</p> <p>Students: Good morning teacher</p> <p>Teacher: Today we are going to talk about countable and uncountable nouns. First, can anybody tell me what countable – uncountable nouns are? Or, what is the Arabic for it?</p> <p>Students A: معدود و غير معدود</p> <p>Teacher: Yes, very good. What English countable nouns do you know?</p> <p>Students B: <i>Book, chair, boy, story.</i></p> <p>Teacher: Very good. Now. Can you give me uncountable nouns in English?</p> <p>Student C: <i>Water, juice, rice.</i></p>			5 minutes

<p>Teacher: That is right. Well done. Does the word <i>water</i> have a plural form in English? In other words, can we say <i>waters</i>?</p> <p>Students D: No, because <i>water</i> is always singular in English.</p> <p>That is right. Now we will discuss countable-uncountable nouns in detail.</p>	
<p>2. Introduction to the countable-uncountable nouns.</p> <p>(1) Copies of the countable-uncountable section will be distributed to the students by the teacher.</p> <p>(2) The teacher leads the students to read through the rules one by one together with the examples accompanying each rule. If necessary, the teacher may provide more examples or ask her students to make up sentences with countable-uncountable nouns in focus.</p> <p>Teacher: Now let's start with Singular-plural and countable-uncountable nouns. Let's read number 1 to know the difference between countable and uncountable nouns. As you see, countable nouns can be singular and plural whereas uncountable nouns are always singular. The teacher then, reads the examples with the students and asks students to give examples of their own to make sure that they understand the rule.</p> <p>Student D: We can say <i>egg-eggs</i> but we cannot say <i>bread-breads</i>.</p> <p>Teacher: Well done! Very good. Now go to number 2 and see how we use <i>a</i>, <i>an</i>, and <i>the</i> with countable-uncountable nouns.</p> <p>The teacher explains the rule and gives examples then asks her students to provide more examples.</p> <p>Student E: <i>I have a book.</i></p> <p>Teacher: Yes, that right. I need another example please.</p> <p>Student F: <i>an elephant is a big animal.</i></p>	<p>20 minutes</p>

<p>Teacher: That is right. Now go to number 3 to see how <i>some</i>, <i>any</i>, <i>much</i> and <i>many</i> are used with countable-uncountable nouns.</p> <p>The teacher explains the rule followed by examples and then asks her students to give more examples of their own.</p> <p>Teacher: <i>some</i> can be used with both plural countable-uncountable nouns. We can say: <i>I need <u>some</u> money. I need <u>some</u> books.</i></p> <p><i>Many</i> can be used only with plural countable nouns whereas <i>much</i> can be used only with uncountable nouns. we can say:</p> <p><i>There are <u>many</u> students in my class.</i></p> <p><i>There is <u>much</u> money in my purse.</i></p> <p>3- Review of the rules.</p> <p>Teacher: Now please put away your handouts and look at me. What are the rules we learned today? Let's start with countable nouns.</p> <p>Students: Countable nouns can be singular or plural.</p> <p>Teacher: Yes, Give me examples, please.</p> <p>Student G: We can say <i>a teacher</i> to refer to a singular noun and <i>teachers</i> to refer to plural.</p> <p>Teacher: Yes, what about <i>a</i>, <i>an</i>?</p> <p>Student H: We can use <i>a</i>, <i>an</i> with singular countable nouns. We can say: <i>a book</i> but not <i>a books</i>. <i>An idea</i> but not <i>an ideas</i>.</p> <p>Teacher: Very good. What about <i>the</i>?</p> <p>Student I: We can use <i>the</i> with both singular, plural countable nouns and uncountable nouns. We can say <i>the book</i>, <i>the books</i>, and <i>the money</i>.</p>	<p>5 minutes</p>
<p>4- Doing exercises</p>	<p>15 minutes</p>

<p>Teacher: well done everybody! That is right. Now I want you to do the exercises and then we will answer the questions together.</p> <p>The teacher gives her student time to work together and do the exercises and then she will see their answers and provides feedback.</p>	
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Lesson 2

Material	Oxford Practice Grammar. English Grammar in Use.	Unit	Countable- uncountable nouns (abstract/concrete) and (dual nouns)
		Student	30
		Time	45 minutes
Objectives	<p>1-Students will be able to understand the rules specifying nouns (abstract/concrete and dual nouns that can be countable and uncountable).</p> <p>2- The generalization that a noun (dual noun) is usually uncountable when it is used in a general, abstract meaning and countable when it is used in a particular meaning.</p> <p>3- Learners will be able to apply the uses of abstract, concrete and dual nouns appropriately according to the rules.</p>		
Procedure			Time
<p>Warm-up: revising students' knowledge about countable- uncountable nouns.</p> <p>Teacher: Good morning every body</p> <p>Students: Good morning teacher</p> <p>Teacher: last week we talked about countable-uncountable nouns. then the teacher revises the lesson of countable and uncountable nouns with students to make sure that they still remember and understand what they have learned.</p> <p>After that the teacher will talk about lesson two.</p>			5 minutes

<p>2. Introduction to the lesson</p> <p>Teacher: Today we are going to talk about abstract/concrete nouns and nouns that can be countable and uncountable (dual nouns). First, can we change the word <i>idea</i> into plural?</p> <p>Student A: Yes, we can say <i>ideas, two ideas, many ideas</i>.</p> <p>Teacher: Very good. Now, what about the word <i>book</i>?</p> <p>Student B: Yes, we can say <i>two books, three books, a few books</i>.</p> <p>Teacher: Yes, that is right. Ok, Can you see and touch <i>a book</i>?</p> <p>Student C: Yes, I can see it and touch it.</p> <p>Teacher: what about idea? Can you see it and touch it?</p> <p>Student D: No, We can't.</p> <p>Teacher: Yes, nouns that we can't touch or see are abstract nouns and those which we can see and touch are concrete nouns.</p> <p>Second, can anybody gives me an example with the word <i>glass</i>.</p> <p>Students E: <i>I drink water in a glass.</i></p> <p>Teacher: Yes, very good. <u>How many glasses</u> do you drink every day?</p> <p>Students B: <i>I drink four glasses of water every day.</i></p> <p>Teacher: Good. Now. Can you give me another example with <i>coffee</i>?</p> <p>Student G: <i>I like coffee.</i></p> <p>Teacher: That is right. Well done. <u>How much water</u> do you drink a day?</p> <p>Students D: <i>I drink two cups of coffee.</i></p> <p>Teacher: Good. Also, we can say <i>this window is made of glass</i>, but we cannot say: <i>this window is made of glasses</i>. Why we said <i>four glasses of water</i> but not <i>made of glasses</i>? That is because some nouns in English (dual nouns) can be countable (I.e. they can be changed into plural) and uncountable (they are always singular). Hence, <i>glass</i> may mean: <i>four glasses = four cups</i> and <i>made of glass= the substance of which window is made</i>. Now let's read more about abstract/concrete nouns and dual nouns.</p>	<p>5 minutes</p>
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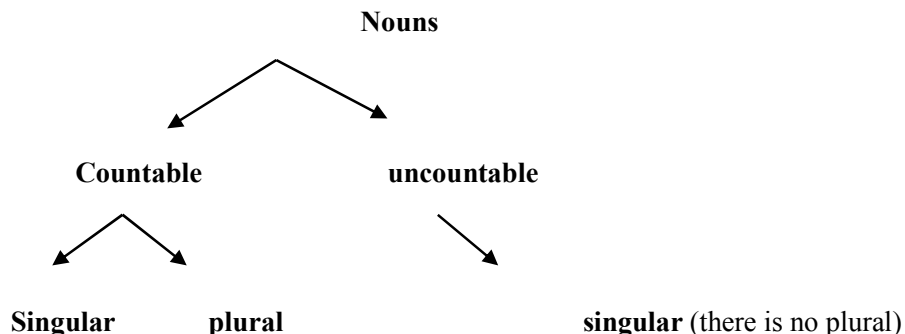
<p>3- The lesson</p> <p>(1) Copies of the dual nouns section will be distributed to the students by the teacher.</p> <p>(2) The teacher leads the students to read through the rules one by one together with the examples accompanying each rule. If necessary, the teacher may provide more examples or ask her students to make up sentences with abstract, concrete and dual nouns in focus.</p> <p>Teacher: Now let's read part (1): abstract/ concrete nouns. Then the teacher explains the rules and the students are given exercises about abstract/concrete nouns. After the teacher ensures that the students understand the rules, they go to part two.</p> <p>The same procedure will be followed with parts (2) and (3). For example, in part three the teacher says:</p> <p>Teacher: Now, go to part (3) sentence no.1. As you see, some nouns can be countable and uncountable with a difference in meaning. The teacher then, reads the examples with the students and asks her students to give examples from their own and generate a separate sentence for each of the two forms to show that they realize the difference. The teacher may help them and give them one or two words to start with such as <i>paper</i> and <i>cheese</i>.</p> <p>Student A: <i>My book is made of paper.</i></p> <p>Teacher: Good. What else?</p> <p>Student B: <i>I write a letter on a paper.</i></p> <p>Teacher: Yes, that is right. Which one refers to the substance? The first sentence or the second one?</p> <p>Student C: The first one.</p> <p>Teacher: Good.</p> <p>The teacher explains the difference to the students.</p> <p>Teacher: Now go to sentence number 2.</p> <p>The teacher reads the sentence and gives explanation to the students and then asks them to provide more examples of their own. After that students will answer the exercises and the teacher provides feedback.</p>	<p>30 minutes</p>
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<p>4- Review of the rules.</p> <p>Teacher: Now please put away your handouts and look at me. What are the rules we learned today?</p> <p>Students: Dual nouns can be countable and uncountable.</p> <p>Teacher: Yes, give me examples, please.</p> <p>Student E: We can say <i>a coffee</i> to mean <i>a cup of coffee</i>.</p> <p>Teacher: Very good.</p>	5minutes
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Lesson 1

Singular-plural and countable-uncountable nouns

1) What is the difference?



-A count noun can be singular or plural. We can count the noun *student* (*students*). We can say *one student*, *two students*, etc.

-I have got only one **sister**.

- There is a **form** of Arabic called Modern Standard.

- He hammered in 30 **nails**.

- Look at these **holes**.

-An uncountable noun is always singular (e.g. water). There is no plural of uncountable nouns. They cannot be counted. We cannot say **(a water, two waters)*

Here are some examples of uncountable nouns.

- **Weather** always changes.
- Can I have some **money**?
- I love **music**.
- Would you like some **butter**?
- **Tea** is one of the most popular drinks in the world.
- **Pollution** is caused by many things.

2) Nouns after *the*, *a/an*.

There are some words that can be used with countable and uncountable nouns. One of these is *the*. We can say *the student* (singular), *the students* (plural) or *the water* (uncountable), but *a/an* go with one kind of noun not with the other. That is, *a/an* can be used only with singular countable nouns, whereas with uncountable nouns, neither *a* nor *an* can be used.

*You can give me **an idea**.* (*an* with singular count noun *an idea*)

*Giving presents is **a special part** of Christmas.* (*a* with a singular countable noun *a part*)

*Water is necessary **for life**.* (water is not used with *a* or *an*)

3) Nouns after *some*, *any*, *many*, *much*.

a) **Some** and **any** can be used with plural -countable nouns and uncountable nouns.

Plural countable nouns	uncountable nouns
<i>We wrote some letters.</i>	<i>He listened to some music.</i>
<i>Do you have any books?</i>	<i>Did you buy any orange juice?</i>
<i>Jane took some flowers. (= a number of)</i>	<i>Can you lend me some money?</i>
<i>Some people even put up trees outdoors in their garden.</i>	

b) **Many** and **few** can be used only with plural nouns:

*There were **many students** in my class.*

*I gave him **few examples**, he needs more.*

*There weren't **many bottles**. I made **a few sandwiches**.*

*In **many countries**, magical figures like Santa Claus bring children their gifts.*

***A few weeks** later the customer pays the money back to the bank.*

c) **Much** and **little** can be used with uncountable nouns:

*He does not drink **much** water.*

*They have **little** work to do.*

*I don't drink **much** wine.*

*There was only **a little** bread left.*

Exercise 1

Look at the underlined nouns. Are they countable or uncountable?

- 1- Decorating the house is an old custom.
- 2- Temperature is one of the most important elements in our weather.
- 3- David was listening to music when I arrived.
- 4- I do not like violence.
- 5- I am taking a photo.
- 6- We went to a nice restaurant last week.
- 7- I saw a photograph of the flat.
- 8- I have hurt my leg.
- 9- Could I have some more milk, please?
- 10- May she have another slice of bread, please?
- 11- Strong winds damaged the roof.

Exercise 2

Put *a/an* or *the* in the following sentences.

- 1- I wonder if you can help me. I haveproblem.
- 2- I like volleyball. It isgood game.
- 3- His father taught gave him.....umbrella.
- 4-juice you drink few minutes ago is not healthy.
- 5-books I gave you are useful.

Exercise 3

Jana has been to the supermarket. What has she bought? Use *a* or *some* with these words: orange, cheese, eggs, mineral water, pencil, ruler, book, butter, sugar, rice.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....



Exercise 4

Complete the following conversation. Choose the correct answer.

David: what are you doing Jana?

Jana: I am writing a paragraph/ paragraph.

David: Oh, you have got a computer/computer. Do you always write paragraph/paragraphs on your computer?

Jana: yes, but today I am not doing very well. I have been working on my plan for about hour/ two hours now.

David: you have got lots of books to help you, though. I have not got as many/mush books as you. That is because I have not got much/many money. Quite often I can't even afford to buy food/a food.

Jana: really? That can't be many/much fun.



Lesson 2

part 1

Countable-uncountable nouns

Abstract-Concrete Nouns

1) Abstract nouns

An *abstract noun* can be either a countable noun or uncountable noun. An **abstract noun** refers to states, events, concepts, feelings, qualities that have no physical existence. They can be **countable nouns** or **uncountable nouns**, and **singular** or **plural nouns**.

Abstract countable nouns		Abstract uncountable nouns
<i>singular</i>	<i>plural</i>	
An Idea A Problem A Dream A Belief A Skill A fact	Ideas Problems Dreams Beliefs Skills facts	Love Anger Bravery Knowledge Trust Success Honesty truth

2) Concrete Nouns

A **concrete** noun refers to objects and substances, including people and animals, physical items that we can perceive through our senses. Concrete nouns can be touched, felt, held, something visible, smelt, taste, or be heard. They can be **countable nouns** or **uncountable nouns**, and **singular nouns** or **plural nouns**.

Concrete countable nouns		Concrete uncountable nouns
Singular	plural	singular
A cat A girl An apple An umbrella A house	cats girls apples umbrellas houses	Water Sugar Rice Salt cheese

Exercise 1

In each sentence below, underline the concrete nouns and circle the abstract nouns.

1. The principal asked all the students to think about the importance of friendship.
2. When I looked at the new mother, her love for her newborn baby was obvious.
3. He looked at the pile of money with greed in his eyes, and then he tried to grab it.

4. He patted his full stomach with satisfaction after he finished eating his dinner.
5. Her eyes were full of hope as she asked her mom to let her keep the puppy.

Exercise 2

Write *abstract* or *concrete* noun in the following spaces

1. My teacher admired your *honesty*. Honesty is.....
2. An *artist* must have a good imagination. Artist is.....
3. The *election* was held in April. Election is.....
4. Poor health kept the frail *girl* indoors. Girl is.....
5. Wild animals in *captivity* often seem pathetic. Captivity is
6. The actress thought about her *plan*. Plan is.....
7. The young *man* wanted to know about his future. Man is.....
- 8- Her memories of Africa were fading. Africa is.....

Exercise 3

Think of three concrete nouns, and three abstract nouns. Write them below.

Concrete Nouns

Abstract Nouns

- | | |
|----------|----------|
| 1. _____ | 1. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 2. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 3. _____ |

Write a sentence using at least one of your concrete nouns and one of your abstract nouns.

.....

Lesson 3

A/An and The

***A/an**

1) a/an = one

A/an can be used with nouns which are mentioned for the first time and represent no particular person or thing.

I bought a book.

Can I ask a question?

This is an interesting film.

2) **A** is used with before nouns that start with a consonant **sound**

a bank a car a man a day a holiday a uniform

3) **An** is used before nouns that start with a vowel **sound** (a, e, i, o, u).

An idea an orange an airport an uncle an hour

4) **A/an** can be used before job titles.

She is a nurse.

He is an engineer.

I am a student.

5) **A/an** can be used with some expressions of quantity, amounts and frequency.

I bought a pair of jeans yesterday.

He visits his parents twice a year.

I finished my homework a few minutes ago.

6) **A/an** can be used in exclamations before singular countable nouns.

What a nice day!

What a good meal!

What an interesting story!

7) **A/an** can be used with a phrase that describes something.

It was a good story.

Benghazi is a nice old city.

It's a big house.

This is a better photo.

*** The**

1). **The** can be used when mentioning something for the second time.

I saw a cat. The cat was sitting on a fence. The fence was painting green.

2). **The** can be used when we expect the reader or listener to know which person or thing we are talking about.

Did you lock the door? (The listener knows which door is meant.)

What happened to the book that I gave you?

The woman dressed in black is my teacher.

Who is the girl sitting next to Peter?

3). **The** can be used with unique objects. That is, when there is only one kind of an object.

The moon is beautiful tonight.

the rays of the sun hit us more directly.

Weather always changes all around the world.

4) **The** is also used with a number of expressions that refer to our physical environment. The use of **the** in such a situation implies that everybody is familiar with what we are talking about.

Places near the sea usually have more moderate climates.

It gets colder when you are higher up in the mountains.

5) **The** can be used with superlative adjectives and ordinal numbers such as first, second etc.

Arabic is one of the oldest languages.

Arabic is considered the sixth most spoken language in the world.

Temperature is one of the most important elements in our weather.

6) **The** is also used with *cinema, theatre* and *(news) paper*.

How often do you go to the cinema?

I read about the war in the paper.

7) We say **a/the police officer** but only **the police**.

A police officer was seen in the bank this morning. NOT *A police was seen in the bank this morning.*

The police were seen in the bank this morning. (= one or more police officers)

Exercise 1

Complete the story. Put in a/an or the.

There was ----- boy who was always losing his temper. His father gave him----- bag full of----- nails and said to him, "My son, I want you to hammer-----nail into our garden fence every time you need to direct your anger against something and you lose your temper." So -----son started to follow his father's advice. On-----first day he hammered in 37 nails, but getting-----nails into-----fence was not easy, so he started trying to control himself when he got angry. As ----days went by, he was hammering in less nails, and within weeks he was able to control himself and was able to refrain from getting angry and from hammering----- nails.



He came to his father and told him what he had achieved. His father was happy with his efforts and said to his son “But now, my son, you have to take out----- nail for every day that you do not get angry.”

Exercise 2

Replace the sentences which contain an underlined word. Use *a/an* or *the* with the word in brackets.

We didn't have much time for lunch. David made something for us. (omelette)

David made-----

1 They ran the race before they held the long jump. Matthew won it easily, (race)

Matthew won-----easily.

2 The driver turned left. Suddenly someone ran into the road, (child)

Suddenly-----ran into the road.

3 Vicky was lying on the sofa. She was watching something on television, (film)

She was watching-----on television.

Exercise 3

Complete these sentences about pollution and the environment. Put in *a/an* or *the*.

1 There was also article about pollution in paper.

2.ozone layer will continue to disappear if we don't find way to stop it.

3world's weather is changing. Pollution is having effect on our climate.

4 Last week oil tanker spilled oil into sea, damaging wildlife.

5 If..... earth was human being, it would be in hospital.

Lesson 4

The, zero article and a/an: ‘things in general’ (General and Specific Meanings)

GENERAL	SPECIFIC
<p>1-A plural noun or an uncountable noun on its own (with no <i>the</i>) can have a general meaning.</p> <p><i>Cars</i> are cheap these days.</p> <p><i>lions</i> are strong animals.</p> <p><i>I don't understand computers.</i>(= all computers)</p> <p><i>Natasha is studying music.</i></p>	<p>The + plural noun or uncountable noun has a specific meaning. (specific people or things)</p> <p><i>The cars</i> had both been stolen.</p> <p><i>We saw the lions</i> at the zoo.</p> <p><i>The computers</i> crashed at work today.(specific computers at my workplace)</p> <p><i>The music</i> was too loud. (= the music at a</p>

(= all music, music in general)	specific time, at a party for example)
Do you take <i>vitamins</i> ?	Did you take <i>the vitamins</i> I left you on the table?

2- The can be used with a singular countable noun to refer to general statements or characteristics of a class of things or people rather than one specific person or thing.

Who invited the radio?

The crocodile can swim.

3- The can be used with musical instruments.

Jane can play the piano and the violin.

4- a/an can be used to refer to a generic sense. Compare:

A lion is a strong animal. = (every lion is strong).

A lion was killed by John= (a specific lion (one lion) was killed)

An elephant is a big animal. = (every elephant is big).

An elephant was seen this morning in the street. = (a specific elephant; one of many)

Exercise 1

Complete the conversations. Put in the nouns and decide if you need the.

1. **Rachel:** Did your family have a dog when you were younger?

Vicky: No, thank goodness. I'm afraid of..... (dogs). I didn't like.....

(dogs) that were running around in the park yesterday. I was afraid they were

going to attack me.

2. **Melanie:** You shouldn't drive so much, Mark. You know that.....

(cars)cause.....(pollution), don't you?

Mark: Yes, but (cars) these days are cleaner than they used to be. Isn't

it..... (aeroplanes) that are mainly responsible for.....
(pollution) of the atmosphere?

3. **Melanie:** I've put some bread out in the garden for (birds).

Tom: You like(birds), don't you?

Melanie: Yes, I do. I love (wildlife), in fact. I'd much rather live in the

country if I could.

4. **Laura:** You're always reading books about..... (history), aren't you?

Harriet: It was always my favourite subject. Do you know anything about..... (history)
of this area?

Laura: No, but if you like looking round(museums)
and.....(old buildings), we could find out about it together.

Exercise 2

Put in the correct noun and decide if you need the.

Use these nouns: *atom, football, guitar, radio, telescope, television*

1 I was listening to a phone-in on

2 Rutherford split in 1911.

3 Tom and his friends played in the park.

4 Mike is quite musical. He can play.....

Exercise 3

Look at the pictures and say what people like. Use these objects: *art, chemistry, chips, dogs, golf*



1-.....

2-.....

3-.....

4-.....

5-.....

Lesson 5

Zero Article and The

Compare these situations.



*This man is in **prison**. He went to **prison** two years ago.*

We do not use ***the*** when we are talking about being **in prison** as a prisoner.

*The young woman is in **the prison**. She has gone to **the prison** to visit her father.*

We use ***the*** when we mean the prison as a specific building. The young woman is **in the prison** as a visitor.

1) Certain count nouns in prepositional phrases occur with the zero article to refer to the customary use of an institution.

He went to school. (He is a student and went to school to study).

She goes to hospital every day. (She is a doctor and works in it).

In the examples above, the zero article was used with *school* and *hospital* as they are used to refer to their main purposes, i.e. the school is a place to study in and the hospital is a place where doctors examine patients in).

However, the definite article *the* can be used to refer to a particular use of an institution.

He went to the school. (as a parent to see the headmaster).

They went to the prison. (to visit somebody).

The examples show that the definite article *the* was used with these nouns because they were not used for their main purposes. Instead, they were used to refer to a particular use.

More examples can include:

Phrases without <i>the</i> (Nouns function as their main purpose).	Phrases with <i>the</i>
<i>in bed, go to bed</i> (to rest or sleep) home: <i>at home, go home</i> sea: <i>at sea</i> (= sailing) <i>go to sea</i> (as a sailor)	<i>sit on the bed, make the bed</i> <i>in the house, to the house, in the home</i> <i>on the sea, by the sea, on/to the coast</i>

Exercise 1

Complete the sentences with the word given . Use *the* where necessary.

1. Every term parents are invited to------(school) to meet the teachers.
2. Why is not your son at------(school) today. Is he ill?
3. my father has always been very healthy. He has never been in------(hospital).
4. a few days ago the fire brigade were called to------(prison) to put out a fire.
5. Shall we meet after------(work) tomorrow evening?

Exercise 2

Fill the gaps with the correct answer in brackets.

- 1-I am tired. I am going to..... (the bed/ bed)
- 2- Blast! I forgot to go to..... (the bank/ bank)
- 3- You hate going to....., don't you? (the church/ church)
- 4-I love being at..... (the university/ university)
- 5- We need to be at.....in an hour. (the airport/ airport)

Exercise 3

Choose the correct form, with or without *the*.

1. Look at the apples/ apples in this tree.

2. I do not drink coffee/ the coffee. I do not like it.
3. Life/ the life is strange sometimes.
4. I like skiing/ the skiing, but I am not very good at it.
5. What makes people/ the people violent?

Exercise 4

Complete this paragraph from a magazine article about Melissa Livingstone. Put in the words with or without *the*.

Today Melissa Livingstone is a popular actress and star of the TV soap opera 'Round the Corner'.

But as a child she was very unhappy. She didn't do well at (school), and she never went to (1).....(college). Her greatest pleasure was going to (2)(cinema).

Her family lived in an unattractive town and their home was next to (3)(station). Melissa's father, Tom, was a sailor, and he spent months at (4)(sea). He was hardly ever at (5)(home) and when he was, he didn't do very much.

Sometimes he spent all day in (6) (bed). Melissa's mother, Susan, had to get up at five o'clock every day to go to (7)..... (work). When Tom lost his job he stole a gold cup from (8)..... (church) Susan used to go to. He had to go to (9)(prison) for a year. Melissa's mother was horrified at the shame he had brought on the family.



Appendix D

A Sample Lesson for the CG

Tea



Tea is one of the most popular drinks in the world. You make it by pouring hot water over the dried leaves of a tea plant. For centuries people believed that teas could cure illnesses, they used it as medicine. Today scientists know that tea contains chemicals that prevent cells from dying. Most teas have caffeine in them, a substance that makes you feel more active. Some people have problems drinking tea because it can cause sleeplessness.

Tea plant

The tea plant grows best in tropical and temperate places where rain falls throughout the year. Tea can be grown from sea level to about 2,000 metres, but the best quality grows in higher regions.

Tea comes from the leaves and buds of tea plants. Wild plants can be up to 9 metres high but on tea plantations they are cut back to a bush of about a metre in height so that workers can pluck the leaves easily. The plant produces pointed, leathery dark leaves, small white flowers and seeds that look like hazelnuts. It takes a plant three to five years before is ready for plucking.

A plucker can harvest about 20 kg of tea a day. On large tea plantations the leaves are harvested by machines, but the quality of tea is higher when the leaves are hand-plucked.

Types of tea

The most common types of tea are black and green tea. They come from the same plant but are processed differently.

Workers take the leaves and spread them out on shelves where they can dry. Next, they are rolled and broken into pieces and put into a room where they absorb oxygen. Chemical reactions change the taste and character of the tea. Finally , the leaves are dried with hot air until they turn brownish-black. Most black tea comes from Sri Lanka, Indonesia and eastern Africa.

To make green tea, workers put the freshly picked leaves into a steamer, which keeps them green. Then they are crushed and dried in ovens. Japan is the biggest producers of green tea .

Tea can be bought in many forms – leaves, powder or tea bags. Some of them are added with flavours, like vanilla, orange or lemon. Although most people drink their tea hot, many enjoy iced tea, especially during the summer months.

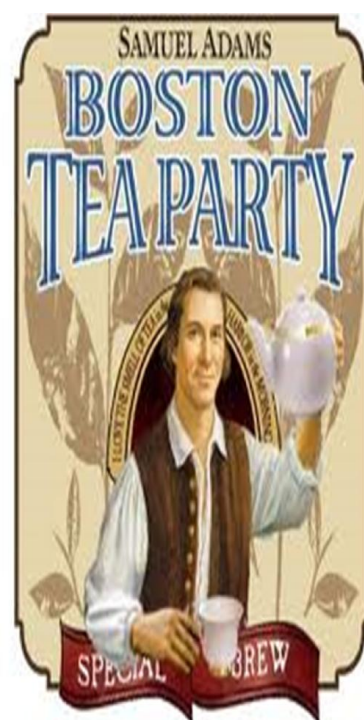
Black tea is brewed by pouring water over a teaspoon of tea. The tea should soak for three to five minutes before you drink it. Green tea should be left in water longer. Instead of putting tea leaves into a pot people often put tea bags into a cup.

History

People first drank tea in China about 5000 years ago. Originally it was used as a medicine, then as a daily drink. It spread to Japan in the 3rd century A.D. Dutch and Portuguese traders brought tea from eastern Asia to Europe in the 1600s.

In 1657 the beverage was sold for the first time in coffee houses in Great Britain. When the English started a tradition of tea drinking in the afternoon it became England's national drink. In the 17th and 18th centuries tea spread to British colonies overseas.

In 1767 Great Britain placed a tax on tea imported by American colonists. During the Boston Tea Party of 1773 they were so angry that they threw a ship full of British tea into the harbour to protest British rule. Two years later the American Revolutionary War started.



Today about 3.3 million tons of tea are produced. India, with its famous tea growing regions like Darjeeling and Assam, and China produce about half of the world's tea. It also grows in many other parts of Asia, especially in Sri Lanka and Indonesia. In the course of time growing tea has spread to countries in Eastern Europe, Africa and South America .

1)Answer the following questions

1- What substances does tea have in it?

.....

2- How has tea been used for centuries?

.....

3- In which regions do tea plants grow best?

.....

4- What kinds of leaves do tea plants have?

.....

5- What is the difference between black and green tea?

.....

2) True or false

1- People first drank tea in Japan about a thousand years ago.

2- Black tea should be left longer in water than green tea.

3- During the Boston Tea Party colonists dumped shiploads for tea into the harbor.

4- About 33 million tons of tea are produced every year.

5- Assam is a tea growing area in northern India.

6- All tea leaves are put into a steamer to dry.

3) Match the words on the left to the definitions on the right

1- Flavor a- take in

2- Beverage b- a tightly rolled up flower or leaf before it opens

3- Absorb c- a person from the Netherlands

4- Century d- to bring in products from the field or from trees

5- Dutch e- a hot or cold drink

6- Bud f- a hundred years

7- Harbor g- the special taste of something

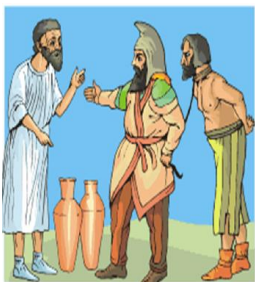
8- Harvest h- place where ships stay to load and unload their goods



Money

Money is something that is very difficult to explain. People in various cultures think of money in different ways. A London banker and an African tribesman have different ideas of what money is.

Many people think of money as a currency –metal coins and paper bills. We need it to buy the things in life that we need. We also get money for the work that we do. So, money is a way of exchanging goods and services .



The History of Money

In early civilizations people did not have money. They traded objects. Maybe a hunter had more animal furs than he could use and his neighbour might have caught more fish than he could eat himself. They soon saw that they needed each other. The fisherman needed furs to protect himself from the cold and the hunter needed something to eat, so they exchanged their goods. This is called barter. Barter also had disadvantages. If there weren't any more people who needed the hunter's furs he couldn't trade them for the things he needed.

Coins



In the course of time people searched for better ways of trading goods. They found out that metal, especially gold and silver, was very valuable.

Some historians believe that the first coins were made at around 700 B.C. by the Lydians. The Greeks and Romans also had silver and gold coins. Their value was guaranteed by the government.

But it was not until the late Middle Ages that coins became common throughout Europe. Metals were stamped and coins had to have a certain weight . People knew how many coins they needed to buy something because they had a fixed value.

Credit cards

Today, more and more people use credit cards to buy things. You don't have to take real money with you. With a credit card the bank lends its customer money to buy something. The customer signs a small slip of paper and the shop assistant sends it to the bank and gets his money at once. A few weeks later the customer pays the money back to the bank.



The Euro

In 1991 the leaders of the European Union got together in Maastricht, the Netherlands and agreed on creating a single currency for all of Europe.

On January 1, 2002, the Euro became the official money in twelve of the fifteen EU nations. Only Great Britain, Sweden and Denmark wanted to stay with their old currency.

In 2004, ten central and eastern European nations joined the EU. They will decide later on if they want to join the Euro zone.

When banks and stock exchanges began using the Euro in 1999 it was worth 1.17 US dollars. Shortly afterwards it became weaker and fell to 0.80 US dollars, but since 2002 its value has risen constantly, almost up to 1.30 US dollars.

The colourful euro banknotes were designed by the Austrian Robert Kalina. They range from € 5 to € 500 and have a map, the EU flag, as well as arches, bridges and windows on them.

There are eight coins — ranging from 1 cent to 2 Euros. One side of the coins all look the same but on the other side each country has its own national design.

People in favour of introducing the Euro argue that the European currency will increase trade among European countries. It could also unify the union and make it stronger. Many economic experts also predict that the Euro can compete with the US dollar as an important international currency.

1-Correct the following sentences

- 1- Some historians believe that the first coins came from China.
.....
- 2- People did not know how many coins they needed to buy something because they did not have a fixed value.
.....
- 3- If a customer pays by credit card the shop assistant lends him money.
.....
- 4- Today, only few people use credit cards to buy things.

.....

2) Answer the following questions about the passage.

1- What did early civilization use as money?

.....

2- What disadvantages did the system of barter have?

.....

3- Which metals became valuable during the middle ages?

.....

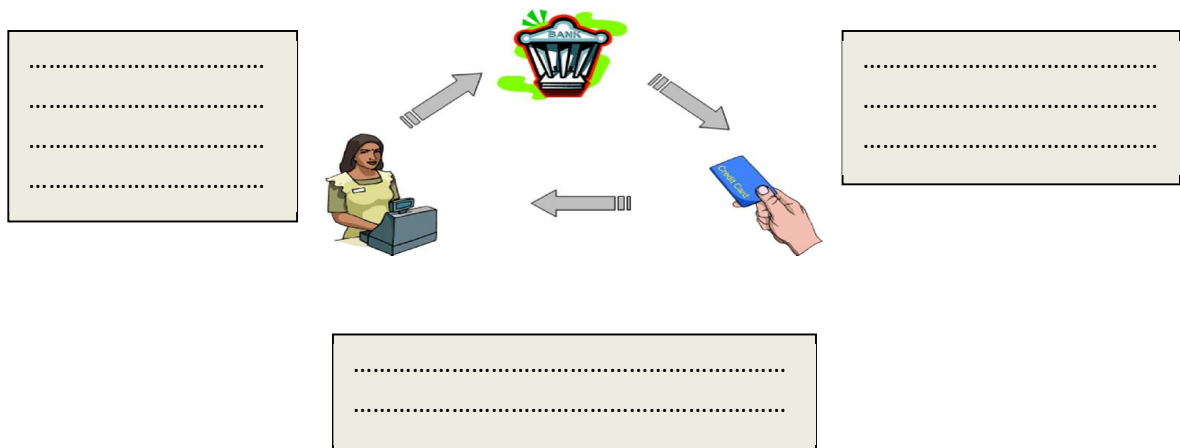
4-Why do many people buy goods with credit cards?

.....

3) Put the sentences about the Euro into their correct order. The first one is done for you.

	Their own currencies, the Euro banknotes were designed by the
	Say that the Euro will become a strong currency and it will help
	Other side countries have their own national designs. Many experts
1	On January 1,2002, the Euro became the official money in twelve of the fifteen EU
	Austrian Robert Kalina. They have a map, the EU flags, windows, arches
	States, only Sweden , Denmark and Great Britain decided to stay with
	unify the union and make it stronger
	Euros, one side of the coin look the same in each country, but on the

4) What happens when you pay with a credit card? Write some information in the boxes.



Appendix E

Authentic texts: Comparison between English and Arabic in terms of the English article system

Text 1 E	English sentence	Arabic sentence	English	Arabic	No. of use
1-1	A long time ago, there was a huge apple tree.	منذ زمن بعيد ولي...كان هناك شجرة تفاح كبيرة	Indef	zero	
1-2	A long time ago, there was a huge apple tree.	منذ زمن بعيد ولي...كان هناك شجرة تفاح كبيرة	Indef	zero	3.9.1.2
1-3	A little boy loved to come and play around it every day.	كان هناك طفل صغير يلعب حول هذه الشجرة يوميا	Indef	zero	3.9.1.2
1-4	He climbed to the treetop, ate the apples.	وكان يتسلق أغصان هذه الشجرة ويأكل من ثمارها	def	al-	3.7.1.1
1-5	Time went by..the little boy had grown up.	مر الزمن. وكبر هذا الطفل	zero	al-	
1-6	Time went by. the little boy had grown up.	مر الزمن. وكبر هذا الطفل	def	al-	3.7.1.1
1-7	One day, the boy came back to the tree and he looked sad.	في يوم من الأيام...رجع هذا الصبي الى الشجرة وكان حزينا	def	al-	3.7.1.1
1-8	One day, the boy came back to the tree and he looked sad.	في يوم من الأيام...رجع هذا الصبي الى الشجرة وكان حزينا	def	al-	3.7.1.1
1-9	"I am no longer a kid; I do not play around trees anymore". The boy replied.	فأجابها الولد: لم أعد صغير لألعب حول الشجر	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
1-10	"I am no longer a kid; I do not play around trees anymore". The boy replied.	فأجابها الولد: لم أعد صغيرا لألعب حول الشجر	zero	al-	3.8.1
1-11	"I am no longer a kid; I do not play around trees anymore". The boy replied.	فأجابها الولد: لم أعد صغيرا لألعب حول الشجر	def	al-	3.7.1.1
1-12	I want toys. I need money to buy them.	أنا أريد بعض اللعب واحتاج بعض النقود لشرائها	zero	al-	3.8.1
1-13	I want toys. I need money to buy them.	أنا أريد بعض اللعب واحتاج بعض النقود لشرائها	zero	al-	3.8.2
1-14	But you can pick all the apples and sell them. So, you will have money.	ولكن يمكنك ان تأخذ كل التفاح إلى لدي لتبيعه ثم يمكنك ان تحصل على النقود التي تريدها	def	al-	3.7.1.1

1-15	So, you will have money.	ثم يمكنك ان تحصل على النقود التي تريدها	zero	al-	3.8.2
2-1 E	There was a boy who was always losing his temper.	كان هناك ولد عصبي وكان يفقد صوابه بشكل مستمر	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
2-2	I want you to hammer a nail into our garden fence.	بني أريدك أن تدق مسمار في سياج حديقتنا الخشبي	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
2-3	His father gave him a bag full of nails.	فأحضر له والده كيس مملوء بالمسامير	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
2-4	His father gave him a bag full of nails.	فأحضر له والده كيساً مملوءاً بالمسامير	zero	Def. al-	3.9.8
2-5	On the first day he hammered in 37 nails.	فدق في اليوم الأول 37 مسمار	def	Def. al-	3.7.7
2-6	On the first day he hammered in 37 nails.	فدق في اليوم الأول 37 مسمار	zero	Zero	3.9.8
2-7	But getting the nails into the fence was not easy.	ولكن إدخال المسمار في السياج لم يكن سهلاً	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
2-8	But getting the nails into the fence was not easy.	ولكن إدخال المسمار في السياج لم يكن سهلاً	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
2-9	As the days went by.	وبعدها وبعد مرور الأيام	def	Def. al-	
2-10	He was able to control himself and was able to refrain from getting angry and from hammering nails.	وفي أسابيع تمكن من ضبط نفسه، وتوقف عن الغضب وعن دق المسامير	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
2-11	The son started to take out the nails.	وبدأ الولد من جديد بخلع المسامير	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
2-12	The son started to take out the nails.	وبدأ الولد من جديد بخلع المسامير	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
2-13	There were no nails left in the fence.	حتى انتهى من المسامير في السياج	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
2-14	There were no nails left in the fence.	حتى انتهى من المسامير في السياج	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
2-15	but look at these holes in the fence.	انظر الآن إلى تلك الثقوب في السياج.	zero	Def. al-	3.7.6
2-16	When you say things in a state of anger, they leave marks like these holes on the hearts of others.	عندما تقول أشياء في حالة غضب فإنها تترك آثاراً مثل هذه الثقوب في نفوس الآخرين .	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
2-17	They leave marks like these holes on the hearts of others.	إنها تترك آثار مثل هذه الثقوب في نفوس الآخرين.	zero	zero	3.8.1
2-18	They leave marks like these holes on the hearts of others.	إنها تترك آثاراً مثل هذه الثقوب في نفوس الآخرين.	zero	Def. al-	3.7.6
2-19	When you say things in a state of anger, they leave marks like these holes on the hearts of others.	عندما تقول أشياء في حالة الغضب فإنها تترك آثاراً مثل هذه الثقوب في نفوس الآخرين.	zero	Zero	3.8.1
3-1E	What is health insurance and why do I need it	ما هو التأمين الصحي ولماذا أحتاجه	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2

3-2	Health insurance protects you and your family from a financial hardship due to medical expenses in the untimely event that you are injured or become ill.	التأمين الصحي يحميك وأولادك من المشقات المادية الناتجة عن المصروفات الطبية في الأوقات الغير محددة التي تصاب فيها أو تمرض	indef	Def. al-	3.9.1.2
3-3	Health insurance protects you and your family from a financial hardship due to the medical expenses in the untimely event that you are injured or become ill.	التأمين الصحي يحميك وأولادك من المشقات المادية الناتجة عن المصروفات الطبية في الأوقات الغير محددة التي تصاب فيها أو تمرض	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
3-4	It is better to evaluate each type of insurance to obtain an accurate account of which type will best suit your needs.	ومن الأفضل أن تقيم كل نوع من التأمينات حتى تحصل على القيمة الدقيقة لأفضل نوع يفي باحتياجاتك	indef	Def. al-	3.9.1.2
3-5	Medical supplement insurance is designed for the elderly who contribute to Medicare	والتأمين الطبي للمكملات مصمم لكبار السن الذين ينتفعون من العناية الطبية	def	Def. addition	3.7.2
3-6	Medical supplement insurance is designed for the elderly who contribute to the Medicare	والتأمين الطبي للمكملات مصمم لكبار السن الذين ينتفعون من العناية الطبية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
3-7	Disability insurance protects you in the event you become physically or mentally disabled due to an accident or illness	والتأمين على العجز يحميك في حالة إذا ما أصبحت عاجزاً بدنياً أو عقلياً بسبب حادث أو مرض	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
3-8	This the plan is devised to keep you economically secure during hard times by paying monthly wages directly to you when you are unable to work	وهذه الخطة ترمي إلى أن تحفظك في حالة أمان إقتصادي خلال الفترات العصيبة وذلك عن طريق دفع الأجور الشهرية لك مباشرة عندما تفقد القدرة على العمل	zero	Def. al-	3.7.6
3-9	This policy specifically provides you with the money meet your mortgage obligation if you become totally disabled	وهذه السياسة على وجه الخصوص تزودك بالمال لمقابلة التزامك بمصاريف الرهن العقاري إذا أصبحت عاجزاً بالكلية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
3-10	Does it cover the pre-existing conditions, genetic conditions, chronic or life threatening conditions	هل يغطي الحالات السابقة الوجود، والحالات الجينية، والمزمنة، أو الحالات التي تهدد الحياة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1

3-11	How much money will it shell out before it is considered at its limit?	كم ستعطيك من المال كحد أقصى لهذا التأمين؟	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
3-12	Will it cover the cost of transplants or long-term care?	هل سيغطي تكلفة زراعة الأعضاء أو العناية طويلة الأجل؟	zero	Def. addition	3.8.1
3-13	Will it cover the cost of transplants or long-term care?	هل سيغطي تكلفة زراعة الأعضاء أو العناية طويلة الأجل؟	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
3-14	Are you at high-risk for diabetes, a heart attack or stroke?	هل تجابه مرض السكر، أو النوبة أو السكتة القلبية؟	zero	Def. addition	
3-15	Are you at high-risk for diabetes, a heart attack or stroke?	هل تجابه مرض السكر، أو النوبة أو السكتة القلبية؟	indef	Def. al-	3.9.1.6
3-16	Are you at high-risk for diabetes, a heart attack or stroke?	هل تجابه مرض السكر، أو النوبة أو السكتة القلبية؟	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
3-17	Are you the primary breadwinner and if so how will the bills be paid if you are out of work due to an unforeseen disability caused by an accident?	هل أنت العائل الرئيسي، وإذا كان هذا هو الحال فكيف سيتم دفع الفواتير إذا خرجت عن العمل بسبب إعاقة غير متوقعة بسبب حادث ما؟	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.2
4-1 E	Art is a healthy form of expression	الفن هو صورة صحية للتعبير	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
4-2	Art is a healthy form of expression	الفن هو صورة صحية للتعبير	indef	zero	
4-3	Art is a healthy form of expression	الفن هو صورة صحية للتعبير	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
4-4	This does not mean, though, that you have to create the art yourself	هذا لا يعني أنه يجب عليك أن تخلق الفن بنفسك	def-	Def al-	3.7.1.1
4-5	Discover solutions in the same way!	وتستكشف الحلول بنفس الطريقة!	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
4-6	At the end of a hard day	في نهاية يوم متعب	def	zero	3.7.1.2
4-7	At the end of a hard day	في نهاية يوم متعب	indef	zero	3.9.1.1
4-8	take a pen and write	تأخذ قلم وتكتب	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
4-9	take a paintbrush and paint	أو تمسك فرشاة الرسم وترسم	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
4-10	Even at home, you can find that it helps relieve	أو حتى في المنزل نفسه، ستجد أنها ستساعد على الراحة من	zero	Def. al-	3.8.10

	stress daily!	الضغوط اليومية..			
4-11	One of the best ways to get exercise is through walking	من أفضل الطرق لممارسة الرياضة هو المشي	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.6
4-12	One of the best ways to get exercise is through walking.	من أفضل طرق ممارسة الرياضة هو المشي	zero	Def. al-	
4-13	Which is highly recommended by doctors because it is low impact	والذي ينصح به الأطباء بسبب كونه ذو تأثير بسيط	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
5-1E	It is a special occasion not only for the respective mother and father, but also for the entire family and their friends	إنها مناسبة خاصة، ليس فقط للأب والأم، ولكن لكل أفراد الأسرة والأصدقاء	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
5-2	It is a special occasion not only for the respective mother and father, but also for the entire family and their friends	إنها مناسبة خاصة، ليس فقط للأب والأم، ولكن لكل أفراد الأسرة والأصدقاء	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
5-3	It is a special occasion not only for the respective mother and father, but also for the entire family and their friends	إنها مناسبة خاصة، ليس فقط للأب والأم، ولكن لكل أفراد الأسرة والأصدقاء	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
5-4	Celebrate this joyous occasion with style	احتفل بهذه المناسبة المبهجة بأناقة	zero	Def. al-	3.7.6
5-5	Baby beds with a number of tiny pillows in different shapes	أسرة الأطفال مع مجموعة من الوسائد الصغيرة ذات الأشكال المختلفة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
5-6	Baby beds with a number of tiny pillows in different shapes	أسرة الأطفال مع مجموعة من الوسائد الصغيرة ذات الأشكال المختلفة	indef	zero	3.9.1.7
5-7	Baby beds with a number of tiny pillows in different shapes	أسرة الأطفال مع مجموعة من الوسائد الصغيرة ذات الأشكال المختلفة	zero	Def. al-	
5-8	Baby beds with a number of tiny pillows in different shapes	أسرة الأطفال مع مجموعة من الوسائد الصغيرة ذات الأشكال المختلفة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
5-9	A baby bed is very useful because babies soil the bed frequently and to have a spare one always helps	إن سرير الطفل نافع جداً لأن الأطفال يلطخون الأسرة بصفة دائمة، ووجود سرير إضافي يساعد بالتأكيد	indef	Def. addition	3.9.1.2
5-10	A baby bed is very useful because babies soil the bed frequently and to have a spare one always helps	إن سرير الطفل نافع جداً لأن الأطفال يلطخون الأسرة بصفة دائمة، ووجود سرير إضافي يساعد بالتأكيد	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
5-11	A baby bed is very useful because babies soil the bed frequently and to have a spare one always	إن سرير الطفل نافع جداً لأن الأطفال يلطخون الأسرة بصفة دائمة، ووجود سرير إضافي يساعد بالتأكيد	indef	zero	

	helps				
5-12	Baby wraps and blankets	لفافات الطفل و البطانيات	zero	Def. addition	3.8.1
5-13	Baby wraps and blankets	لفافات الطفل و البطانيات	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
5-14	Baby skin is very soft	إن جلد الطفل رقيق جداً	zero	Def. addition	3.9.1.6
5-15	buy soft wraparounds for the baby	أن تشتري لفافات ناعمة للبيبي	zero	zero	3.8.1
5-16	buy soft wraparounds for the baby	أن تشتري لفافات ناعمة للبيبي	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
5-17	Baby clothes	ملابس الطفل	zero	Def. addition	3.8.1
5-18	Loose and soft clothes are always the best.	فالملايس الواسعة و الناعمة هي الأفضل دائماً.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.6
5-19	Remember to avoid buttoned or buckled apparel.	تذكر أن تتجنب الملابس المكسوة بالأبازيم أو الأزرار.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
5-20	This also applies to caps, hoods and socks.	ونفس الحال في القبعات و القلائس (جمع قلنسوة) والجوارب	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
5-21	Body suits are considered ideal as they cover the baby from head to toe without the help of drawstrings and buttons.	وتعتبر بدل الأطفال مثالية لأنها تغطي الطفل من الرأس حتى القدم ، بدون روابط أو أزرار.	zero	Def. addition	3.8.1
5-22	Body suits are considered ideal as they cover the baby from head to toe without the help of drawstrings and buttons.	وتعتبر بدل الأطفال مثالية لأنها تغطي الطفل من الرأس حتى القدم ، بدون روابط أو أزرار.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
5-23	Body suits are considered ideal as they cover the baby from head to toe without the help of drawstrings and buttons.	وتعتبر بدل الأطفال مثالية لأنها تغطي الطفل من الرأس حتى القدم ، بدون روابط أو أزرار.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.11
5-24	Pacifiers, rattlers, and chimes are among other items that are appropriate for the occasion.	المصاصة (البزازة)، و الشخشخة، و الأجراس.. كل هذا من الأشياء المناسبة لتلك المناسبة	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
5-25	Shower items form a very important part of baby gifts	ومواد الاستحمام تمثل أحد هدايا الأطفال الهامة	zero	Def. addition	3.8.1
5-26	Shower items form a very important part of baby gifts	ومواد الاستحمام تمثل أحد هدايا الأطفال الهامة	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
5-27	Moms can be gifted shower aprons.	ومن الممكن إهداء الأمهات فوط الاستحمام كذلك.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
5-28	Ideal gifts include rocking chairs and horses.	فإن الكراسي الهزازة و الأحصنة من الهدايا المثالية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1

5-29	It is better if chocolates and other goodies accompany gifts.	من الأفضل إذا صحب الهدايا الشيكولاتة و بعض الحلوى	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
6-1E	Arabic is one of the oldest languages in the world today	تعتبر اللغة العربية واحدة من اللغات الأقدم في العالم والتي يتقنها اليوم	zero	De. al-	3.8.2
6-2	Arabic is one of the oldest languages in the world today	تعتبر اللغة العربية واحدة من اللغات الأقدم في العالم والتي يتقنها اليوم	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.6
6-3	Arabic is one of the oldest languages in the world today	تعتبر اللغة العربية واحدة من اللغات الأقدم في العالم والتي يتقنها اليوم	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
6-4	Arabic is one of the oldest languages in the world today	تعتبر اللغة العربية واحدة من اللغات الأقدم في العالم والتي يتقنها اليوم	zero	Def. al-	3.7.4
6-5	It is the official language of Algeria, Bahrain, Comoros, Egypt and Libya	أنها اللغة الرسمية للجزائر، والبحرين، وجزر القمر، ومصر وليبيا	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.2
6-6	It is the official language of Algeria, Bahrain, Comoros, Egypt and Libya	أنها اللغة الرسمية للجزائر، والبحرين، وجزر القمر، ومصر وليبيا	zero	Def. al-	3.7.1.4
6-7	It is the official language of Algeria, Bahrain, Comoros, Egypt and Libya	أنها اللغة الرسمية للجزائر، والبحرين، وجزر القمر، ومصر وليبيا	zero	Def. al-	3.7.1.4
6-8	It is the official language of Algeria, Bahrain, Comoros, Egypt and Libya	أنها اللغة الرسمية للجزائر، والبحرين، وجزر القمر، ومصر وليبيا	zero	Definite through addition	3.7.1.4
6-9	It is the official language of Algeria, Bahrain, Comoros, Egypt and Libya	أنها اللغة الرسمية للجزائر، والبحرين، وجزر القمر، ومصر وليبيا	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
6-10	It is the official language of Algeria, Bahrain, Comoros, Egypt and Libya	أنها اللغة الرسمية للجزائر، والبحرين، وجزر القمر، ومصر وليبيا	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
6-11	There is a form of Arabic called Modern Standard Arabic	وثمة شكل من أشكال اللغة العربية يدعى "العربية الحديثة العامة"	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
6-12	There is a form of Arabic called Modern Standard Arabic	وثمة شكل من أشكال اللغة العربية يدعى "العربية الحديثة العامة"	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
6-13	There is a form of Arabic called Modern Standard Arabic	وثمة شكل من أشكال اللغة العربية يدعى "العربية الحديثة العامة"	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
6-14	It is understood by Arabic speakers and is often used in international organizations.	ويفهمه معظم الناطقين باللغة العربية كما أنه يستعمل في المنظمات الدولية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
6-15	It is understood by most Arabic speakers and is often used in international organizations	ويفهمها معظم الناطقين باللغة العربية كما أنه يستعمل في المنظمات الدولية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1

6-16	Arabic is considered the sixth most spoken language in the world even though the Arabic language is spread into many varying forms	فهي تحتل المرتبة السادسة في العالم بالرغم من أنها تتشعب إلى العديد من الأشكال المختلفة.	def	Def. al-	3.7.7
6-17	In fact , Arabic is one of the official languages of the United Nations and is mostly spoken in the Middle East and Northern Africa	ففي الواقع، تعد اللغة العربية واحدة من اللغات الرسمية للأمم المتحدة وينطق بها بشكل أساسي في الشرق الأوسط وأفريقيا الشمالية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.12
6-18	In fact, Arabic is one of the official languages of the United Nations and is mostly spoken in the Middle East and Northern Africa	ففي الواقع، تعد اللغة العربية واحدة من اللغات الرسمية للأمم المتحدة وينطق بها بشكل أساسي في الشرق الأوسط وأفريقيا الشمالية	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.5
6-19	In fact, Arabic is one of the official languages of the United Nations and is mostly spoken in the Middle East and Northern Africa	ففي الواقع، تعد اللغة العربية واحدة من اللغات الرسمية للأمم المتحدة وينطق بها بشكل أساسي في الشرق الأوسط وأفريقيا الشمالية	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.5
6-20	Arabic nations enjoy great wealth due to the huge oil reserves found in those regions	العديد من الأمم العربية تتمتع بثروات طائلة بفضل مخزون النفط الهائل في تلك المناطق	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
6-21	Arabic nations enjoy great wealth due to the huge oil reserves found in those regions	العديد من الأمم العربية تتمتع بثروات طائلة بفضل مخزون النفط الهائل في تلك المناطق	def	Def. addition	3.7.1.2
6-22	Arabic nations enjoy great wealth due to the huge oil reserves found in those regions	العديد من الأمم العربية تتمتع بثروات طائلة بفضل مخزون النفط الهائل في تلك المناطق	zero	Def. al-	3.7.6
6-23	Due to the size of the Arabic	وبفضل حجم الأسواق العربية	def	Def. addition	3.7.1.2
6-24	Due to the size of the Arabic markets	وبفضل حجم الأسواق العربية	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.2
6-25	the Arabic speaking population has great potential for business online.	أن السكان الناطقين بالعربية يشكلون مادة دسمة للأعمال الإلكترونية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
7-1E	How to learn English	كيف تتعلم الإنجليزية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
7-2	Speak without Fear	تحدث دون خوف	zero	zero	3.8.2
7-3	The biggest problem most people face in learning a new language is their own fear	أكبر مشكلة تواجه الناس في تعلم لغة جديدة هي الخوف من الوقوع في الخطأ	def	zero	3.7.1.6
7-4	The biggest problem most people face in learning a new language is their own fear	أكبر مشكلة تواجه الناس في تعلم لغة جديدة هي الخوف من الوقوع في الخطأ	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
7-5	The fastest way to learn anything is to do it	أسرع وسيلة لتعلم الشيء هو القيام بمحاولة لتعلمه	def	zero	3.7.1.6
7-6	learning English requires practice	تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية يتطلب التطبيق	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
7-7	learning English requires practice	تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية يتطلب التطبيق	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2

7-8	Even if you study English at a language school it doesn't mean you can't learn outside of class	حتى لو كنت طالباً في مدرسة لتعليم اللغة الإنجليزية , فإن هذا لا يعني أنك لا تستطيع تعلم اللغة من وسائل و أماكن أخرى	Indef	zero	3.9.1.6
7-9	different sources, methods and tools as possible, will allow you to learn faster	استعمال العديد من المصادر والطرق والوسائل بقدر المستطاع سيجعل تعلم اللغة يكون بشكل أسرع	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
7-10	The internet is a fantastic resource for virtually anything, but for the language learner it's perfect.	الإنترنت على سبيل المثال مصدر رائع عملياً. وبالنسبة لدراس اللغة يعتبر مصدر	def	Def. al-	3.7.9
7-11	The internet is a fantastic resource for virtually anything, but for the language learner it's perfect.	الإنترنت على سبيل المثال مصدر رائع عملياً. وبالنسبة لدراس اللغة يعتبر مصدر	indef	zero	3.9.1.9
7-12	Watch English news, movies and television	شاهد الإخبار باللغة الإنجليزية , الأفلام والقنوات التلفزيونية باللغة الإنجليزية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
7-13	Watch English news, movies and television	شاهد الإخبار باللغة الإنجليزية , الأفلام والقنوات التلفزيونية باللغة الإنجليزي	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
7-14	Watch English news, movies and television	شاهد الإخبار باللغة الإنجليزية , الأفلام والقنوات التلفزيونية باللغة الإنجليزي	zero	Def. al-	3.8.12
7-15	Listen to English music	استمع إلى الموسيقى الانجليزية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
7-16	Music can be a very effective method of learning English	الموسيقى ممكن أن تكون وسيلة مؤثرة جداً في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
7-17	In fact, it is often used as a way of improving comprehension	في الواقع أن الموسيقى مستخدمة في تطوير الإستيعاب	zero	Def. al-	3.8.12
7-18	In fact, it is often used as a way of improving – comprehension.	في الواقع أن الموسيقى مستخدمة في تطوير الإستيعاب	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
7-19	The best way to learn is to get the lyrics (words) to the songs you are listening to and try to read them as the artist sings.	وأفضل وسيلة للتعلم عبر سماع الأغاني هي الحصول على كلمات الأغنية مكتوبة , وقراءتها قبل سماع الأغنية و أثناء ذلك كما ولو كنت المغني	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
7-20	There are several good internet sites where one can find the words for songs.	هناك العديد من المواقع على الإنترنت يمكنك أن تحصل من خلالها على كلمات أغلب الأغاني	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
7-21	Only by studying things like Grammar and Vocabulary and doing exercises	بدراسة قواعد اللغة والكلمات وتطبيق التمارين فقط	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.2
7-22	Only by studying things like grammar and vocabulary and doing exercises	بدراسة قواعد اللغة والكلمات وتطبيق التمارين فقط	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
7-23	Only by studying things like grammar and vocabulary and doing exercises	بدراسة قواعد اللغة والكلمات وتطبيق التمارين فقط	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1

7-24	One of the best reasons for doing exercises and tests is that they give you a benchmark to compare your future results with	أحد أهم أسباب القيام بالتمارين والاختبارات هو أنها تعطيك فرصة المقارنة بين علامتك المستقبلية مع العلامات السابقة	def	zero	3.7.1.6
7-25	One of the best reasons for doing a exercises and tests is that they give you a benchmark to compare your future results with	أحد أهم أسباب القيام بالتمارين والاختبارات هو أنها تعطيك فرصة المقارنة بين علامتك المستقبلية مع العلامات السابقة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
7-26	One of the best reasons for doing exercises and tests is that they give you a benchmark to compare your future results	أحد أهم أسباب القيام بالتمارين والاختبارات هو أنها تعطيك فرصة المقارنة بين علامتك المستقبلية مع العلامات السابقة	indef	zero	3.9.1.9
7-27	It is by comparing your score on a test you took yesterday with one you took a month or six months ago	مقارنة ما أخذته امس مع ما أخذته قبل شهر او ستة أشهر	Indef	zero	3.9.1.5
8-1A	A ustralia threatened to contest or (protest) against proposed American Agricultural law at the International Trade Organization	هددت استراليا بالطعن في مشروع قانون زراعي أمريكي أمام منظمة التجارة العالمية	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
8-2	Australia threatened to contest or (protest) against proposed a merican Agricultural law at the International Trade Organization	هددت استراليا بالطعن في مشروع قانون زراعي أمريكي أمام منظمة التجارة العالمية	zero	zero	3.8.2
8-3	Australia threatened to contest or (protest) against proposed American Agricultural law at the International Trade Organization	هددت استراليا بالطعن في مشروع قانون زراعي أمريكي أمام منظمة التجارة العالمية	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.5
8-4	The Asians seemed willing to give support for the American Law as it means a reduction of the price of the goods they import.	المستوردين الآسيويين بدوا مستعدين لتقديم بعض الدعم للقانون الأمريكي الجديد نظرا لأنه يعني انخفاض أسعار المنتجات	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.4
8-5	The Asians seemed willing to give a support for the American Law	المستوردين الآسيويين بدوا مستعدين لتقديم بعض الدعم للقانون الأمريكي	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
8-6	The Asians seemed willing to give support for the American Law as it means a reduction of the price of the goods they import.	المستوردين الآسيويين بدوا مستعدين لتقديم بعض الدعم للقانون الأمريكي الجديد نظرا لأنه يعني انخفاض أسعار المنتجات	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
8-7	The Asians seemed willing to give some support for the American Law as it means a reduction of	المستوردين الآسيويين بدوا مستعدين لتقديم بعض الدعم للقانون الأمريكي الجديد نظرا لأنه يعني انخفاض أسعار المنتجات	indef	zero	3.9.1.6

	the price of the goods they import.				
8-8	A reduction of the price of the goods they import.	لأنه يعني انخفاض أسعار المنتجات	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.2
8-9	A strong competition	منافسه ضاربه	indef	zero	3..9.1.6
8-10	A strong competition is taken place between the Australians and the Americans over exporting wheat and cotton.	وتدور منافسه ضاربه بين استراليا والولايات المتحدة على تصدير القمح والقطن	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
8-11	A strong competition is taken place between the Australians and the Americans over exporting wheat and cotton.	وتدور منافسه ضاربه بين استراليا والولايات المتحدة على تصدير القمح والقطن	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
8-12	The Australian government criticized the law approved by the Congress last Friday and will last for six years	وانتقدت الحكومة الأسترالية مشروع القانون الذي اقره الكونغرس يوم الجمعة الماضي لمدة ستة أعوام	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
8-13	The Australian government criticized the law approved by the Congress last Friday and will last for six years.	وانتقدت الحكومة الأسترالية مشروع القانون الذي اقره الكونغرس يوم الجمعة لمدة ستة أعوام	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
8-14	The Australian government criticized the law approved by the Congress last Friday and will last for six years	وانتقدت الحكومة الأسترالية مشروع القانون الذي اقره الكونغرس يوم الجمعة لمدة ستة أعوام	zero	Def. al-	3.7.4
9-1E	The U.S. military in Iraq discovered two computer disks containing photographs, evacuation plans and academic information	عثرت القوات الأمريكية بالعراق على قرصي حاسب آلي يحتويان على معلومات أكاديميه وخطط إخلاء	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
9-2	The U.S. military in Iraq discovered two computer disks containing photographs, evacuation plans and academic information	عثرت القوات الأمريكية بالعراق على قرصي حاسب آلي يحتويان على معلومات أكاديميه وخطط إخلاء	zero	Def. al-	3.7.1.4
9-3	The U.S. military in Iraq discovered two computer disks containing photographs, evacuation plans and academic information	عثرت القوات الأمريكية بالعراق على قرصي حاسب آلي يحتويان على معلومات أكاديميه وخطط إخلاء	zero	zero	3.8.2
9-4	The U.S. military in Iraq discovered two computer disks containing photographs, evacuation plans and academic information	عثرت القوات الأمريكية بالعراق على قرصي حاسب آلي يحتويان على معلومات أكاديميه وخطط إخلاء	zero	zero	3.8.1
9-5	Government officials said the FBI has not found	لم تجد المباحث الفيدرالية أي صلة لذلك بالأرهاب كما نفت أي	def	Def.al-	3.7.1.3

	any link to terrorism, and said there is no information including a plot against any school in the United States.	معلومات تشير الى وجود مؤامرة تستهدف مدارس بالولايات كما قد صرحت المصادر الحكوميه المتحده			
9-6	Government officials said the FBI has not found any link to terrorism, and said there is no information including a plot against any school in the United States.	لم تجد المباحث الفيدراليه أي صلة لذلك بالأرهاب كما نفت أي معلومات تشير الى وجود مؤامرة تستهدف مدارس بالولايات كما قد صرحت المصادر الحكوميه المتحده	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
9-7	Government officials said the FBI has not found any link to terrorism, and said there is no information including a plot against any school in the United States.	لم تجد المباحث الفيدراليه أي صلة لذلك بالأرهاب كما نفت أي معلومات تشير الى وجود مؤامرة تستهدف مدارس بالولايات كما قد صرحت المصادر الحكوميه المتحده	zero	zero	3.8.2
9-8	Government officials said the FBI has not found any link to terrorism, and said there is no information including a plot against any school in the United States.	لم تجد المباحث الفيدراليه أي صلة لذلك بالأرهاب كما نفت أي معلومات تشير الى وجود مؤامرة تستهدف مدارس بالولايات كما قد صرحت المصادر الحكوميه المتحده	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
9-9	Government officials said the FBI has not found any link to terrorism, and said there is no information including a plot against any school in the United States.	لم تجد المباحث الفيدراليه أي صلة لذلك بالأرهاب كما نفت أي معلومات تشير الى وجود مؤامرة تستهدف مدارس بالولايات كما قد صرحت المصادر الحكوميه المتحده	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.5
9-10	Government officials said the FBI has not found any link to terrorism, and said there is no information including a plot against any school in the United States.	لم تجد المباحث الفيدراليه أي صلة لذلك بالأرهاب كما نفت أي معلومات تشير الى وجود مؤامرة تستهدف مدارس بالولايات كما قد صرحت المصادر الحكوميه المتحده	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
9-11	The material included exit strategies, school codes of conduct, and information on creating a fearing environment, officials said.	كما صرح مسؤول ان القرصان يحتويان على استراتيجيات للخروج من المباني وقوانين منظمه للسلوك ومعلومات عن إيجاد أو إنشاء بيئة تعليمية	zero	zero	3.8.1
9-12	The material included exit strategies, school codes of conduct, and information on creating a fearing environment, officials said.	كما صرح مسؤول ان القرصان يحتويان على استراتيجيات للخروج من المباني وقوانين منظمه للسلوك ومعلومات عن إيجاد أو إنشاء بيئة تعليمية	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
9-13	The school districts mentioned in the material were notified in the past few weeks.	وتم اخطار المدارس المعينه في الأسابيع الماضيه	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.2
9-14	The school districts mentioned in the material were notified in the past few weeks	وتم اخطار المدارس المعينه في الأسابيع الماضيه	def	Def. al-	3.7.1

10-1E	There was an island where all the feelings lived: Happiness, Sadness, Knowledge, and all of the others, including Love	كان هناك جزيرة حيث كل المشاعر عاشت: السعادة والحزن والمعرفة وكل الآخرين ومن ضمنهم الحب.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
10-2	There was an island where all the feelings lived: Happiness, Sadness, Knowledge, and all of the others, including Love.	كان هناك جزيرة حيث كل المشاعر عاشت: السعادة والحزن والمعرفة وكل الآخرين ومن ضمنهم الحب.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
10-3	there was an island where all the feelings lived: Happiness , Sadness, Knowledge, and all of the others, including Love	كان هناك جزيرة حيث كل المشاعر عاشت: السعادة والحزن والمعرفة وكل الآخرين ومن ضمنهم الحب.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
10-4	there was an island where all the feelings lived: Happiness, Sadness , Knowledge, and all of the others, including Love	كان هناك جزيرة حيث كل المشاعر عاشت: السعادة والحزن والمعرفة وكل الآخرين ومن ضمنهم الحب.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
10-5	there was an island where all the feelings lived: Happiness, Sadness, Knowledge , and all of the others, including Love	المشاعر عاشت كان هناك جزيرة حيث كل السعادة والحزن والمعرفة وكل الآخرين ومن ضمنهم الحب.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
10-6	there was an island where all the feelings lived: Happiness, Sadness, Knowledge, and all of the others, including Love	المشاعر عاشت: السعادة والحزن والمعرفة وكل الآخرين ومن ضمنهم الحب .	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
10-7	One day it was announced to the feelings that the island would sink. So all constructed boats left, except for Love.	اعلن بان الجزيرة ستغرق, وكل القوارب المشيدة غادرت, ما عدا الحب.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
10-8	One day it was announced to the feelings that the island would sink .So all constructed boats left, except for Love.	اعلن بان الجزيرة ستغرق, وكل القوارب المشيدة غادرت, ما عدا الحب.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
10-9	One day it was announced to the feelings that the island would sink so all constructed boats left, except for Love .	اعلن بان الجزيرة ستغرق, وكل القوارب المشيدة غادرت, ما عدا الحب .	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
10-10	Love wanted to hold out until the last possible moment	الحب اراد الصمود حتى اللحظة المحتملة الاخيرة.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
10-11	Love wanted to hold out until the last possible moment	الحب اراد الصمود حتى اللحظة المحتملة الاخيرة.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.6
10-12	When the island had almost sunk, Love decided to ask for help	عندما اوشكت الجزيرة على الغرق قرر الحب طلب المساعدة.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1

10-13	When the island had almost sunk, Love decided to ask for help	عندما اوشكت الجزيرة على الغرق قرر الحب طلب المساعدة.	zero	Def. al-	
10-14	Richness was passing by Love in a grand boat	مر الغني من امام الحب من مركب كبير.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.8
10-15	Richness was passing by Love in a grand boat	مر الغني من امام الحب من مركب كبير.	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
10-16	There is a lot of gold and silver in my boat.	هناك الكثير من الذهب والفضة في مركبي.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
10-17	There is a lot of gold and silver in my boat	هناك الكثير من الذهب والفضة في مركبي.	Zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
10-18	Vanity, please help me.	من فضلك ساعدني ايها الغرور.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
10-19	But why did Time help me?	لكن لماذا الوقت ساعدني؟	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
11-1E	Mesothelioma is a severe disease that is thinning out its roots everywhere in the world especially in the United States of America.	مرض الميزوثيليوما هو مرض خطير، بدأ في مد جذوره في كل أنحاء العالم، وخاصة في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.8
11-2	Mesothelioma is a severe disease that is thinning out its roots everywhere in the world especially in the United States of America.	مرض الميزوثيليوما هو مرض خطير، بدأ في مد جذوره في كل أنحاء العالم، وخاصة في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية	indef	Zero	3.9.1.2
11-3	Mesothelioma is a severe disease that is thinning out its roots everywhere in the world especially in the United States of America.	مرض الميزوثيليوما هو مرض خطير، بدأ في مد جذوره في كل أنحاء العالم، وخاصة في الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
11-4	Asbestos is a naturally occurring mineral that is used in insulation, clothing and fire-resistant materials.	والاسبستوس هو معدن طبيعي، يُستخدم في العزل، والملابس، والمواد المقاومة للحريق	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
11-5	Asbestos is a naturally occurring mineral that is used in insulation, clothing and fire-resistant materials.	والاسبستوس هو معدن طبيعي، يُستخدم في العزل، والملابس، والمواد المقاومة للحريق	indef	Zero	3.9.1.2
11-6	Asbestos is a naturally occurring mineral that is used in insulation, clothing and fire-resistant materials.	والاسبستوس هو معدن طبيعي، يُستخدم في العزل، والملابس، والمواد المقاومة للحريق	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
11-7	Its usage is often less significant than the disasters caused by it.	إستخداماته أقل قيمة بمقارنتها بالمصائب التي يسببها	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.2
11-8	It was discovered only lately through various tests	وتم إكتشافه بعد ذلك من خلال فحوصات عدة مثل الأشعة السينية، وفحوصات التصوير؛ أي التي تتم من خلال صور الرنين	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1

	such as X-Rays, MRI tests i.e. Magnetic Resonance Imagery and CAT scans or Computed Axial Tomography scans.	المغناطيسي والأشعة المقطعية أو المسح المحوري المحسوب			
11-9	It was discovered only lately through various tests such as X-Rays, MRI tests i.e. Magnetic Resonance Imagery and CAT scans or Computed Axial Tomography scans.	وتم إكتشافه بعد ذلك من خلال فحوصات عدة مثل الأشعة السينية، وفحوصات التصوير؛ أي التي تتم من خلال صور الرنين المغناطيسي والأشعة المقطعية أو المسح المحوري المحسوب	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
12-1E	Although companies try to prohibit or simply prevent people from downloading, MP3 download is a reality: MP3 is there, at anyone's disposal.	فعلى الرغم من أن بعض الشركات تحاول تحريم أو منع الأفراد من التحميل، فتحميل ملفات الإم بي ثري هو حقيقة: فملفات الام بلا موجودة تحت تصرف أي أحد. ثرى	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
12-2	Although companies try to prohibit or simply prevent people from downloading, MP3 download is a reality: MP3 is there, at anyone's disposal	فعلى الرغم من أن بعض الشركات تحاول تحريم أو منع الأفراد من التحميل، فتحميل ملفات الإم بي ثري هو حقيقة: فملفات الام بلا موجودة تحت تصرف أي أحد. ثرى	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
12-3	Although companies try to prohibit or simply prevent people from downloading, MP3 download is a reality: MP3 is there, at anyone's disposal	فعلى الرغم من أن بعض الشركات تحاول تحريم أو منع الأفراد من التحميل، فتحميل ملفات الإم بي ثري هو حقيقة: فملفات الام بي موجودة تحت تصرف أي أحد ثرى	zero	Def. al-	
12-4	All that people need is a computer and a connection.	فكل ما يحتاجه الأشخاص هو جهاز حاسب آلي و طريقة إتصال بالإنترنت.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
12-5	All that people need is a computer and a connection.	فكل ما يحتاجه الأشخاص هو جهاز حاسب آلي و طريقة إتصال بالإنترنت.	indef	Zero	3.9.1.2
12-6	There are already laws that protect the copyrights of the composer's or music band's	هناك بالفعل بعض القوانين التي تحمي حقوق النشر للملحنين والفرق الموسيقية	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
12-7	There are already laws that protect the copyrights of the composer's or music band's	هناك بالفعل بعض القوانين التي تحمي حقوق النشر للملحنين والفرق الموسيقية.	def	Def. addition	3.7.1.2

12-8	These laws usually keep their eyes on websites and software that guarantee free MP3 download	وهذه القوانين تضع أعينها دائماً على المواقع و البرامج التي تتيح تحميل مجاني للأغاني	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
13-1A	Vodafone Qatar is a joint venture between Qatar Foundation, Vodafone International Communications Group and local investors.	فودافون قطر مشروع مشترك بين مؤسسة قطر ومجموعة فودافون الدولية للاتصالات ومستثمرين محليين.	indef	Zero	3.9.1.2
13-2	Vodafone Qatar's focus is on revolutionizing user experience, providing a wide product selection that offers value for money, and international and local calling promotions.	تركز فودافون قطر على خدمة العملاء وتقديم نطاق واسع من المنتجات التي توفر خدمات متميزة مقابل قيمة مادية مقبولة، بالإضافة إلى عروض على المكالمات الدولية والمحلية.	indef	Zero	3.9.1.2
13-3	Vodafone Qatar also promotes a number of social responsibility initiatives including: the World of Difference program.	تقوم فودافون قطر بالترويج لعدد من المبادرات من منطلق المسؤولية الاجتماعية، وتتضمن: برنامج "عالم من الاختلاف"	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
13-4	Vodafone Qatar also promotes a number of social responsibility initiatives including: the World of Difference program.	تقوم فودافون قطر بالترويج لعدد من المبادرات من منطلق المسؤولية الاجتماعية، وتتضمن: برنامج "عالم الاختلاف"	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.2
13-5	It helps Qatar residents implement ideas for charitable projects in Qatar.	والذي يساعد السكان في دولة قطر على تنفيذ مشاريعهم الخيرية داخل الدولة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
14-1E	The Smiths have invited friends for dinner.	عائلة سميث دعت بعض الاصدقاء لتناول العشاء	def	Def. through addition	3.7.1.4
14-2	Mrs Smith wants to make strawberry cheesecake for dessert.	السيدة سميث تريد ان تصنع كيك الفراولة لوقت الحلو	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.2
14-3	She asks Mr. Smith to visit the supermarket to buy a packet of sugar, butter, eggs and strawberries.	طلبت من السيد سميث ان يذهب للسوق ويشتري بعض السكر والزبد والبيض والفراولة	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
14-4	She asks Mr. Smith to visit the supermarket to buy a packet of sugar, butter, eggs and strawberries.	طلبت من السيد سميث ان يذهب للسوق ويشتري بعض السكر والزبد والبيض والفراولة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
14-5	She asks Mr. Smith to visit the supermarket to buy a packet of sugar, butter, eggs and strawberries.	طلبت من السيد سميث ان يذهب للسوق ويشتري بعض السكر والزبد والبيض والفراولة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
14-6	She asks Mr. Smith to visit the supermarket to buy a packet of sugar, butter, eggs and strawberries.	طلبت من السيد سميث ان يذهب للسوق ويشتري بعض السكر والزبد والبيض والفراولة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1

14-7	Mr. Smith rushes to Tesco's and returns carrying a large plastic bag.	ذهب السيد سميث مسرعا الى التيسكو ورجع حاملا معه كيس من البلاستيك	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
14-8	Mrs. Smith inspects the contents. 'You forgot the strawberries, ' she says.	تفقدت السيدة سميث المحتويات ووجدت ان السيد سميث نسي ان يجلب الفراولة	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
14-9	Mrs. Smith inspects the contents. 'You forgot the strawberries, ' she says.	تفقدت السيدة سميث المحتويات ووجدت ان السيد سميث نسي ان يجلب الفراولة	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
15-1E	I would like to study something different at university?	اود ان ادرس شئ مختلف في الجامعة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.3
15-2	Since I like plants, I may study Biology.	بما اننى احب النباتات فقد ادرس علم الاحياء	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
15-3	Since I like plants, I may study Biology.	بما اننى احب النباتات فقد ادرس علم الاحياء	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
16-1E	Aspirin can be a fatal poison.	الاسبرين يمكن ان يكون سم قاتل	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
16-2	People are used to taking aspirin whenever they feel pain.	اعتاد الناس تناول الاسبرين عندما يشعرون بالالم	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
16-3	People are used to taking aspirin whenever they feel pain	اعتاد الناس تناول الاسبرين عندما يشعرون بالالم	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
16-4	It is true that aspirin is an efficacious pain-killer for example in headache cases.	من المعروف ان الاسبيرين فعال للقضاء على الالم مثل حالات الصداع.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.1
16-5	nausea, vomiting, ulcers, liver damage,	الغثيان والقرحة وتلف الكبد	zero	Def. al-	3.8.8
16-6	, ulcers, liver damage, and hepatitis.	والقرحة وتلف الكبد	zero	Def. al-	3.8.8
16-7	hepatitis.	وتلف الكبد	zero	Def through addition	3.8.8
17-1E	Sunset is the time of day where our sky meets the outer space solar winds.	الغروب هو الوقت الذى تلتقى فيه الرياح الشمسية للفضاء الخارجى	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
17-2	There are blue, pink, and purple swirls, spinning and twisting like a cloud of balloons.	يوجد دوامات زرقاء وزهرية وبنفسجية تدور و كأنها سحابة من البالونات	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
17-3	The sun moves slowly beyond the horizon.	تتحرك الشمس ببطء خلف الافق	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
18-1E	The Apollo 11 launched from the Kennedy Space Center in Florida on July 16. 1969.	المركبة الفضائية ابولو 11 انطلقت من مركز الفضاء كينيدي في فلوريدا في السادس عشر من شهر يوليو عام 1969	def	zero	3.7.1.4

18-2	The crew consisted of Neil Armstrong, Michael Collins, and Buzz Aldrin.	يتألف الطاقم من نيل ارمسترونغ ومايكل كولينز وبز الدرين	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
18-3	They landed on the moon in the Sea of Tranquility on July 20, 1969.	هبطوا على سطح القمر في بحر طرانكوليتي في شهر يوليو عام 1969.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
18-4	At 10:56 EDT Neil Armstrong took the first step	في الساعة العاشرة وستة وخمسون دقيقة بتوقيت امريكا في المنطقة الشرقية خطى ارم سترونغ اول خطوة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.14
18-5	At 10:56 EDT Neil Armstrong took the first step onto the moon's surface and famously said, "That's one small step for man, one giant leap for mankind."	في الساعة العاشرة وستة وخمسون دقيقة بتوقيت امريكا في المنطقة الشرقية خطى ارم سترونغ اول خطوة على سطح القمر وقال مقولته الشهيرة : هذه خطوة صغيرة للانسان وقفزة عملاقة للبشرية.	zero	Def. al-	3.8
19-1E	Oceans and lakes have a lot in common.	المحيطات والبحيرات لديها الكثير من القواسم المشتركة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
19-2	Oceans and lakes have a lot in common.	المحيطات والبحيرات لديها الكثير من القواسم المشتركة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
19-2	A main difference is that an ocean is very large and is salt water, while a lake is usually much smaller and is fresh water.	الفرق الرئيسي بينهم هو ان المحيط كبير جدا ومياهه مالحة في حين ان البحيرة اصغر بكثير و مياهها عذبة	indef	Def. al-	3.9.1.2
19-3	A main difference is that an ocean is very large and is salt water, while a lake is usually much smaller and is fresh water.	الفرق الرئيسي بينهم هو ان المحيط كبير جدا ومياهه مالحة في حين ان البحيرة اصغر بكثير و مياهها عذبة	indef	Def. al-	3.9.1.2
19-4	Lakes are usually surrounded by land while oceans are what surround continents.	عادة ما تكون البحيرات محاطة باليابسة والمحيطات محاطة بالقارات	zero	Def. al-	3.8.11
19-5	Lakes are usually surrounded by land while oceans are what surround continents.	عادة ما تكون البحيرات محاطة باليابسة والمحيطات محاطة بالقارات	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
20-1E	I do well in school.	ادرس بشكل جيد في المدرسة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.3
20-2	People think I am smart.	يعتقد الناس انني طالب ذكي	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
20-3	I decided to make school my first priority over friends and fun.	قررت ان اجعل المدرسة اهم من الاصدقاء والمتعة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.3
20-4	I decided to make school my first priority over friends and fun.	قررت ان اجعل المدرسة اهم من الاصدقاء والمتعة	Zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
20-5	I decided to make school my first priority over friends and fun.	قررت ان اجعل المدرسة اهم من الاصدقاء والمتعة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
20-6	I usually go by bus.	عادة ما اذهب الى المدرسة بالحافلة.	zero	Def al-	3.8.4
21-1A	The Nile River, the longest river in the world,	يعتبر نهر النيل أطول أنهار العالم حيث يمتد من منابعه الإستوائية	def	Definite	3.7.1.5

	stretching from the tropical headwaters until its mouth in the Mediterranean.	حتى مصبه في البحر المتوسط		through addition	
21-2	The River Nile springs from many lakes	ينبع نهر النيل من العديد من البحيرات	zero	Def. al-	
21-3	the African tropical Lake Victoria, Lake Edward tropical,	والنهرات الإفريقية مثل بحيرة فيكتوريا الإستوائية، بحيرة إدوارد الإستوائية، بحيرة ألبرت	zero	Definite through addition	3.7.1.4
21-4	the territory of the Sudan.	أراضى السودان	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.5
22-1 A	On Sunday, the Libyan government	أعلنت الحكومة الليبية الأحد	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
22-2	On Sunday,	الأحد	zero	Def. al-	3.7.4
22-3	The prime minister told reporters that Bir-al-Ghanam , 80 km south of Tripoli, was under the full control of the government.	وأكد رئيس الوزراء الليبي خلال مؤتمر صحفي سيطرة القوات الحكومية على البلدة الواقعة على بعد 80 كيلومتر جنوب العاصمة.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.3
22-4	The prime minister al-Baghdadi told reporters that Bir-al-Ghanam , 80 km south of Tripoli, was under the full control of the government.	خلال مؤتمر وأكد رئيس الوزراء الليبي محمود البغدادي للمراسلين صحفي للمراسلين سيطرة القوات الحكومية على البلدة الواقعة على بعد 80 كيلومتر جنوب العاصمة.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
23-1 A	The man worked as a woodcutter	كان يعمل حطاب في الغابة	indef	zero	3.9.1.8
23-2	While he was working in the forest, one of his daughters rushed up to him	هو يحتطب في الغابة. و إذ باحدى بناته تأتي راكضة	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
23-3	You can go home	يمكنكى العودة للبيت	zero	Def. al-	3.8.10
23-4	You will barter me for a pound of gold	تقول له انك تقايضه برطل من الذهب	indef	zero	3.9.1.5
23-5	"I've become an old man and I want to perform the duty of pilgrimage.	الحج أصبحت رجلاً مسن و أريد تأدية فريضة	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
23-6	By chance, her neighbor was on his balcony as well.	وبالصدفة كان جارها في مشرقته أيضاً	zero	Def. al-	3.8.11
23-7	I will pay you a hundred Ottoman liras if you help me	سأعطيك مئة ليرة عثمانية لو ساعدتني	indef	zero	3.9.1.5
23-8	She went to the merchant's home and knocked at the door.	ذهبت إلى دار التاجر و طرقت الباب	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1

23-9	He was on a hunting trip	كان في رحلة صيد	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
23-10	What a strange incident I witnessed!	يا لغرابية ما رأيت أيها الطائر	indef	zero	3.9.1.3
23-11	The bird flew high into the sky.	طار الطائر عاليا في السماء	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
24-1 E	The foundations of calculus, extended the understanding of color and light.	هو من أرسى قواعد علم التفاضل والتكامل، وهو الذي وسَّعَ من مداركنا عن اللون والضوء	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.2
24-2	The foundations of calculus extended the understanding of color and light.	هو من أرسى قواعد علم التفاضل والتكامل، وهو الذي وسَّعَ من مداركنا عن اللون والضوء	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
24-3	He laid the foundations of calculus, extended the understanding of color and light.	هو من أرسى قواعد علم التفاضل والتكامل، وهو الذي وسَّعَ من مداركنا عن اللون والضوء	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
24-4	He studied the mechanics of planetary motion, and discovered the law of gravitation.	درس آليات حركة الكواكب، واكتشف قانون الجاذبية	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.2
24-5	Every particle of matter in the universe, he wrote, attracts every other article.	أي جسيم من المادة في هذا الكون يجذب أي جسيم مادي آخر	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
25-1 A	Women have been calling for equality with men ownership and voting with regards to wages and right.	طالبات النساء فيه بالخير العام والمساواة بينهن وبين الرجال من حيث الأجور وحق التملك والتصويت	zero	Definite through the article al-	3.8.1
25-2	Islam had indeed safeguarded the rights of women.	كفل الإسلام فيها تلك الحقوق النساء	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
25-3	Our glorious Islam has ever underlined the principle of equality between man and woman	ديننا الإسلامي العظيم أكد على المساواة بين الرجل والمرأة	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
25-4	Many studies therefore arrived at logical findings	كانت نتائج العديد من الدراسات المنطقية	zero	Def. al-	
25-5	It is claimed in the Western hemisphere that societies women are oppressed in the Arab	الغرب يدعي ظلم المرأة واضطهادها في المجتمعات العربية	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3

26-1 A	Smoking is bad for your health.	التدخين ضار بصحتك.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
26-2	Smoking causes 87 percent of lung cancer deaths	يسبب التدخين 87 بالمئة من حالات الموت بسرطان الرئة.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.1
26-3	Quitting smoking can reduce your risk of these problems.	الإقلاع عن التدخين يقلل من خطورة تعرضك لهذه المشاكل.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
27-1 A	Cooking is the application of heat to food	طهي الطعام هي علمية يمكن التفكير بها على إنها تطبيق الحرارة على الطعام	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.2
27-2	Cooking is the application of heat to food	طهي الطعام هي تطبيق الحرارة على الطعام	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
27-3	In reality, there are several very different methods of "electric" heating	في الواقع هناك الكثير من أنواع التسخين	zero	Def. al-	3.8.12
27-4	Starting from the open fire, mankind has evolved many ways to generate such heat.	بدء الإنسان طهي طعامه من خلال إشعال النار في الهواء الطلق	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
27-5	one either burns some combustible substance--such as wood, coal, or gas	فيمكن أن نقوم بحرق مادة قابلة للاشتعال للحصول على الحرارة مثل الفحم والخشب والغاز	Zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
27-6	one either burns some combustible substance--such as wood, coal, or gas	فيمكن أن نقوم بحرق مادة قابلة للاشتعال للحصول على الحرارة مثل الفحم والخشب والغاز	Zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
27-7	one either burns some combustible substance--such as wood, coal, or gas	فيمكن أن نقوم بحرق مادة قابلة للاشتعال للحصول على الحرارة مثل الفحم والخشب والغاز	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
28-1 A	Make sure the cable connections are secure	تأكد من احكام توصيل الكوابل.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
28-2	Make sure the printer is powered on.	تأكد من تشغيل الطابعة.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
28-3	Make sure that your printer has a check mark in the circle next to it.	تأكد من ظهور علامة تحديد في الدائرة المجاورة لطابعتك.	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
28-4	Restart the computer.	اعد تشغيل الكمبيوتر.	def	Def.al-	3.7.1.1
28-5	Follow the onscreen instructions to install the printer software.	اتبع الارشادات الظاهرة على الشاشة لتثبيت برامج الطابعة.	def	Definite through	3.7.1.1

				addition	
28-6	On the desktop, open the CD.	فى سطح المكتب, افتح القرص المضغ4وط.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.1
29-1 A	If you break your journey for more than 72 hours at any point, please reconfirm your intention of using your continuing or return reservation.	اذا لم تتمكن من مواصلة رحلتك لمدة اكثر من 72 ساعة فالرجاء اعادة الحجز لاتمامها او العودة.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
29-2	Inform the airline office at the point where you intend to resume your journey at least 72 hours before departure.	اخطار المكتب قبل 72 ساعة من المغادرة.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
29-3	Inform the airline office at the point where you intend to resume your journey at least 72 hours before departure.	اخطار المكتب قبل 72 ساعة من اقلاع الطائرة.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
29-4	Libyan Airlines will try to comply as much as possible with special requests in regard to the service on board, provide d such requests are made in time.	الخطوط الجوية الليبية تحاول دائما وبقدر الامكان مراعاة ظروف المسافرين الخاصة داخل الطائرة.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
29-5	Passengers should report at the town office or at the airport.	على المسافرين ان يعلموا الشركة الناقلة او الحضور الى المطار.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
29-6	For safety reasons, dangerous goods as defined in the IATA Dangerous Goods Regulations, such as those listed above, shall not be carried in as passenger checked or carry-on baggage.	لاسباب تتعلق بالسلامة وطبقا للتعريف الوارد فى لوائح الاياتا للامتعة الخطرة يمنع معنا باتا حمل الامتعة المدرجة.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
29-7	dangerous goods as defined in the IATA Dangerous Goods Regulations, such as those listed above, shall not be carried in as passenger checked or carry-on baggage.	وطبقا للتعريف الوارد فى لوائح الاياتا للامتعة الخطرة يمنع معنا باتا حمل الامتعة المدرجة.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
29-8	Not to carry corrosives such as mercury, acids, alkalis and wet cell batteries.	لا يجوز حمل المواد المسببة للتآكل مثل الزئبق والاحماض القلوية والبطاريات السائلة.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
29-9	Not to carry corrosives such as mercury, acids, alkalis and wet cell batteries.	لا يجوز حمل المواد المسببة للتآكل مثل الزئبق والاحماض القلوية والبطاريات السائلة.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
29-10	Not to carry corrosives such as mercury, acids, alkalis and wet cell batteries.	لا يجوز حمل المواد المسببة للتآكل مثل الزئبق والاحماض القلوية	zero	Definite through	3.8.2

		والبطاريات السائلة.		the article al-	
29-11	Not to carry corrosives such as mercury, acids, alkalis and wet cell batteries.	لا يجوز حمل المواد المسببة للتآكل مثل الزئبق والاحماض القلوية والبطاريات السائلة.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
29-12	Passengers should report at the town office or at the airport.	على المسافرين ان يعلموا الشركة الناقلة او الحضور الى المطار.	Def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
30-1 A	To provide students with the fundamental knowledge of Islamic banking.	لتزويد الطلبة بالمعلومات الاساسيه حول المصارف الاسلاميه	zero	Def. al-	3.8.9
30-2	To provide students with the fundamental knowledge of Islamic banking.	لتزويد الطلبة بالمعلومات الاساسيه حول المصارف الاسلاميه	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.2
30-3	To introduce students to instruments and techniques used in the Islamic banking.	تعريف الطلاب على الأساليب و الأدوات المستخدمة في المصارف الاسلاميه	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
30-4	To introduce students to instruments and techniques used in the Islamic banking.	تعريف الطلاب على الأساليب و الأدوات المستخدمة في المصارف الاسلاميه	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
30-5	To train students in Islamic law and finance.	تدريب الطلبة على القانون المصرفي الإسلامي	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
31-1 A	Mix chicken with garlic, mayonnaise, vinegar, salt and pepper.	اخلطي الدجاج مع كل من الثوم والمايونيز والخل والملح والفلفل.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
31-2	Mix chicken with garlic, mayonnaise, vinegar, salt and pepper.	اخلطي الدجاج مع كل من الثوم والمايونيز والخل والملح والفلفل.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
31-3	Mix chicken with garlic, mayonnaise, vinegar, salt and pepper.	اخلطي الدجاج مع كل من الثوم والمايونيز والخل والملح والفلفل.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
31-4	Mix ground oats, bread crumbs and season with salt and pepper.	اخلطي الشوفان مع فتات الخبز وتبلي بالملح والفلفل.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.2
31-5	Heat the oven to 180 C	سخني الفرن بدرجة 180م	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.1
32-1 A	Mix warm water with yeast and sugar.	اخلطي كل من الماء والخميرة والسكر.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
32-2	Mix with ¾ cup flour, oats and salt.	اضيفي ¾ كوب من الدقيق والشوفان والملح.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
32-3	Add the remaining flour gradually.	اضيفي باقي الدقيق بالتدريج.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2

33-1 A	It includes detailed explanation for all the basics of English Grammar.	تحتوى على شرح مفصل لكافة اسس قواعد اللغة الانجليزية	zero	zero	3.8.2
33-2	It includes detailed explanation for all the basics of English Grammar.	تحتوى على شرح مفصل لكافة اسس قواعد اللغة الانجليزية	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.2
33-3	If you want to know the meaning of a word, you will highlight it by underlining.	اذا اردت معرفة معنى كلمة يتم بالتظليل تحتها بخط	def	zero	3.7.1.2
33-4	If you want to know the meaning of a word, you will highlight it by underlining.	اذا اردت معرفة معنى كلمة يتم بالتظليل تحتها بخط	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
33-4	It includes English and Arabic explanation of the English Grammar with examples and tests and also linguistic common mistakes for preparing to TOEFL.	تحتوى على شرح وافر لقواعد اللغة الانجليزية باللغتين العربية والانجليزية مع مجود امثلة واختبارات والاختفاء اللغوية الشائعة للاعداد لمرحلة امتحان التوفل.	zero	zero	3.8.2
33-5	It includes English and Arabic explanation of the English Grammar with examples and tests and also linguistic common mistakes for preparing to TOEFL.	تحتوى على شرح وافر لقواعد اللغة الانجليزية باللغتين العربية والانجليزية مع مجود امثلة واختبارات والاختفاء اللغوية الشائعة للاعداد لمرحلة امتحان التوفل.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.1
33-6	It includes English and Arabic explanation of the English Grammar with examples and tests and also linguistic common mistakes for preparing to TOEFL.	تحتوى على شرح وافر لقواعد اللغة الانجليزية باللغتين العربية والانجليزية مع مجود امثلة واختبارات والاختفاء اللغوية الشائعة للاعداد لمرحلة امتحان التوفل.	zero	zero	3.8.1
33-7	It includes English and Arabic explanation of the English Grammar with examples and tests and also linguistic common mistakes for preparing to TOEFL.	تحتوى على شرح وافر لقواعد اللغة الانجليزية باللغتين العربية والانجليزية مع مجود امثلة واختبارات والاختفاء اللغوية الشائعة للاعداد لمرحلة امتحان التوفل.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1
33-8	for preparing to TOEFL.	للاعداد لمرحلة امتحان التوفل.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
34-1E	Sales clerk: May I help you, sir?	موظف المبيعات: هل تستطيع مساعدتك ايها السيد؟	zero	Def. al-	3.7.1.4
34-2	I want to talk to the owner of this store -I don't know who he is, but I want to see him right now!	اريد مقابلة المدير فانا لا اعرفه ولكننى اريد مقابلته فى الحال.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.2
34-3	Customer: Yes! I'm very angry. I bought some	الزبون: نعم فانا غاضب جدا فقد اشتريت لحم من هذا المحل	zero	Def. al-	3.7.6

	meat from this store,				
35-1 A	Installed by the British in the wake of a violent revolt,	نصبه البريطانيون عشية ثورة عنيفة,	def	Def. al-	3.7.2
35-2	Installed by the British in the wake of a violent revolt	نصبه البريطانيون عشية ثورة عنيفة,	def	zero	3.7.1.2
35-3	a violent revolt	ثورة عنيفة	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
35-4	one of a handful of Iraqi leaders to die of natural causes, in 1933.	واحدا من حفنة معدودة من العراقيين الذين ماتوا ميتة طبيعية عام 1933.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
35-5	he ruled for 10 years and was one of a handful of Iraqi leaders to die of natural causes, in 1933.	امضى في الحكم 10 سنوات وكان واحدا من حفنة معدودة من العراقيين الذين ماتوا ميتة طبيعية عام 1933.	zero	zero	3.8.1
35-6	The young king, his regent and almost the entire royal family and entourage were killed in a bloody coup in 1958.	الملك الشاب والوصي على العرش وجميع ابناء العائلة المالكة تقريبا وحاشيتهم قتلوا في انقلاب عام 1958.	def	def	3.7.1.3
35-7	The young king, his regent and almost the entire royal family and entourage were killed in a bloody coup in 1958.	الملك الشاب والوصي على العرش وجميع ابناء العائلة المالكة تقريبا وحاشيتهم قتلوا في انقلاب عام 1958.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.3
35-8	The young king, his regent and almost the entire royal family and entourage were killed in a bloody coup in 1958.	الملك الشاب والوصي على العرش وجميع ابناء العائلة المالكة تقريبا وحاشيتهم قتلوا في انقلاب عام 1958.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
35-9	To make matters worse, Iraqis have proved to be strong nationalists.	لزيادة الطين بلة فان العراقيين اثبتوا انهم وطنيون اشداء	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
35-10	To make matters worse, Iraqis have proved to be strong nationalists	لزيادة الطين بلة فان العراقيين اثبتوا انهم وطنيون اشداء	zero	def	3.8.1
35-11	In every war in which Iraq has participated over the last half century,	ففي كل حرب شارك فيها العراق في نصف القرن الماضي	zero	def	3.7.1.4
35-12	over the last half century,	في نصف القرن الماضي,	def	def	3.7.1.3
35-13	Iraqis have fought tenaciously- even when they knew they were going to lose.	كان العراقيون يحاربون بثبات, حتى حين كانوا يدركون انهم سيخسرونها.	zero	def	3.8.1
35-14	Americans who had fought in Vietnam, and then	الامريكيون الذين حاربوا في فيتنام, ومن ثم في حرب الخليج	zero	def	3.8.1

	again in the first golf war, recalled that their fire fights with Iraqis were more intense than anything they had experience from the North Vietnamese.	الاولى, يتذكرون ان الحروب النارية التي خاضوها مع العراقيين كانت اكثر شدة من تلك التي خبروها في قتالهم ضد الفيتناميين الشماليين.			
35-15	Americans who had fought in Vietnam,	الامريكيون الذين حاولوا في فيتنام,	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
35-16	Americans who had fought in Vietnam, and then again in the first golf war,.	الامريكيون الذين حاولوا في فيتنام, ومن ثم في حرب الخليج الاولى	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.3
35-17	Americans who had fought in Vietnam, and then again in the first golf war, recalled that their fire fights with Iraqis were more intense than anything they had experience from the North Vietnamese.	الامريكيون الذين حاولوا في فيتنام, ومن ثم في حرب الخليج الاولى, يتذكرون ان الحروب النارية التي خاضوها مع العراقيين كانت اكثر شدة من تلك التي خبروها في قتالهم ضد الفيتناميين الشماليين.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
35-18	they had experience from the North Vietnamese.	خبروها في قتالهم ضد الفيتناميين الشماليين.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
35-19	The only question now is, will the administration finally recognize its errors? It might already be too late to achieve	السؤال الوحيد هنا, هل ستترك الادارة اخطاءها ام انه فات الاوان لتحقيق ذلك.	def	Def al-	3.7.7
35-20	The only question now is, will the administration finally recognize its errors? It might already be too late to achieve	السؤال الوحيد هنا, هل ستترك الادارة اخطاءها ام انه فات الاوان لتحقيق ذلك.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
36-1 A	Last spring the U.S. dollar looked as if it was heading for a meltdown.	الربيع الماضى بدا الدولار الامريكى وكأنه متجه نحو الانهيار.	def	def	3.7.1.3
36-2	Last spring the U.S. dollar looked as if it was heading for a meltdown.	الربيع الماضى بدا الدولار الامريكى وكأنه متجه نحو الانهيار.	indef	Def al-	3.9.1.2
36-3	The bears warned that it marked the end of the strong-dollar era	وحذر المتشائمون في الاسواق من ان هذا يمثل نهاية حقبة قوة الدولار.	def	Def al-	3.8.10
36-4	the end of the strong-dollar era, a time when New Economy hype overinflated the price of the dollar as well.	نهاية حقبة قوة الدولار, وهى الفترة التى ادى فيها الصعود المبالغ فيه للاسواق فى الاقتصاد الجديد الى تضخم اسعار الدولار كذلك.	def	Def. through addition	3.7.1.2
36-5	the end of the strong-dollar era, a time when New Economy hype overinflated the price of the dollar	نهاية حقبة قوة الدولار, وهى الفترة التى ادى فيها الصعود المبالغ	def	Def al-	3.7.1.2

	as well.	فيه للأسواق في الاقتصاد الجديد الى تضخم اسعار الدولار كذلك.			
36-6	the end of the strong-dollar era, a time when New Economy hype overinflated the price of the dollar as well.	نهاية حقبة قوة الدولار, وهي الفترة التي ادى فيها الصعود المبالغ فيه للأسواق في الاقتصاد الجديد الى تضخم اسعار الدولار كذلك.	indef	Def al-	3.9.1.5
36-7	Last spring the U.S. dollar looked as if it was heading for a meltdown. The bears warned that it marked the end of the strong-dollar era, a time when New Economy hype overinflated the price of the dollar as well.	الربيع الماضي بدا الدولار الامريكي وكأنه متجه نحو الانهيار. وحذر المتشائمون في الاسواق من ان هذا يمثل نهاية حقبة قوة الدولار, وهي الفترة التي ادى فيها الصعود المبالغ فيه للأسواق في الاقتصاد الجديد الى تضخم اسعار الدولار كذلك.	zero	Def al--	3.8.2
36-8	Last spring the U.S. dollar looked as if it was heading for a meltdown. The bears warned that it marked the end of the strong-dollar era, a time when New Economy hype overinflated the price of the dollar as well.	الربيع الماضي بدا الدولار الامريكي وكأنه متجه نحو الانهيار. وحذر المتشائمون في الاسواق من ان هذا يمثل نهاية حقبة قوة الدولار, وهي الفترة التي ادى فيها الصعود المبالغ فيه للأسواق في الاقتصاد الجديد الى تضخم اسعار الدولار كذلك.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.2
36-9	The dollar won't necessarily rise in line with soaring U.S. stocks, either. There is no correlation between currencies and markets, says Alex Patelis of Merrill Lynch. "Currency markets are fickle; they don't move in a straight line," he says.	ان اسعار الدولار لن يرتفع بمواكبة اسعار الاسهم الامريكية التي تشهد ارتفاعا كبيرا الان. ويقول اليكس باتيليس من شركة: ميريل لينش: ليس هناك تناسب بين العملات والأسواق: فاسعار العملة متقلبة, ولا تسير بخط مستقيم.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
36-10	The dollar won't necessarily rise in line with soaring U.S. stocks, either. There is no correlation between currencies and markets, says Alex Patelis of Merrill Lynch. "Currency markets are fickle; they don't move in a straight line," he says.	ان اسعار الدولار لن يرتفع بمواكبة اسعار الاسهم الامريكية التي تشهد ارتفاعا كبيرا الان. ويقول اليكس باتيليس من شركة: ميريل لينش: ليس هناك تناسب بين العملات والأسواق: فاسعار العملة متقلبة, ولا تسير بخط مستقيم.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
36-11	The dollar won't necessarily rise in line with soaring U.S. stocks, either. There is no correlation between currencies and markets, says Alex Patelis of Merrill Lynch. "Currency markets are fickle; they don't move in a straight line," he says.	ان اسعار الدولار لن يرتفع بمواكبة اسعار الاسهم الامريكية التي تشهد ارتفاعا كبيرا الان. ويقول اليكس باتيليس من شركة: ميريل لينش: ليس هناك تناسب بين العملات والأسواق: فاسعار العملة متقلبة, ولا تسير بخط مستقيم.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
36-12	The dollar won't necessarily rise in line with soaring U.S. stocks, either. There is no correlation	ان اسعار الدولار لن يرتفع بمواكبة اسعار الاسهم الامريكية التي	zero	Definite through	3.8.1

	between currencies and markets, says Alex Patelis of Merrill Lynch. " Currency markets are fickle; they don't move in a straight line," he says.	تشهد ارتفاعا كبيرا الان. ويقول اليكس باتيليس من شركة ميريل لينش: ليس هناك تناسب بين العملات والاسواق فاسعار العملة متقلبة,ولا تسير بخط مستقيم.		addition	
36-13	The dollar won't necessarily rise in line with soaring U.S. stocks, either. There is no correlation between currencies and markets, says Alex Patelis of Merrill Lynch. " Currency markets are fickle; they don't move in a straight line," he says.	ان اسعار الدولار لن يرتفع بمواكبة اسعار الاسهم الامريكية التي تشهد ارتفاعا كبيرا الان. ويقول اليكس باتيليس من شركة ميريل لينش: ليس هناك تناسب بين العملات والاسواق فاسعار العملة متقلبة,ولا تسير بخط مستقيم.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
36-14	The dollar won't necessarily rise in line with soaring U.S. stocks, either. There is no correlation between currencies and markets, says Alex Patelis of Merrill Lynch. " Currency markets are fickle; they don't move in a straight line," he says.	ان اسعار الدولار لن يرتفع بمواكبة اسعار الاسهم الامريكية التي تشهد ارتفاعا كبيرا الان. ويقول اليكس باتيليس من شركة ميريل لينش: ليس هناك تناسب بين العملات والاسواق فاسعار العملة متقلبة,ولا تسير بخط مستقيم.	zero	zero	3.8.13
36-15	The dollar won't necessarily rise in line with soaring U.S. stocks, either. There is no correlation between currencies and markets, says Alex Patelis of Merrill Lynch. " Currency markets are fickle; they don't move in a straight line," he says.	ان اسعار الدولار لن يرتفع بمواكبة اسعار الاسهم الامريكية التي تشهد ارتفاعا كبيرا الان. ويقول اليكس باتيليس من شركة ميريل لينش: ليس هناك تناسب بين العملات والاسواق فاسعار العملة متقلبة,ولا تسير بخط مستقيم.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.1
37-1 E	God (Glory be to him) loves good for his creatures, mainly mankind. He likes man to be healthy as he wants man to believe in him. Since cleanliness is the key to health, so cleanliness is next to godliness. Cleanliness is extendable to include your school, street and town.	ان الله يحب الخير لخلقه, خاصة الانسان, انه يحب ان يكون الانسان بصحة مثلما يريد الانسان ان يؤمن به. ولما كانت النظافة هي مفتاح الصحة. فان النظافة اقرب شئ الى تقوى الله. والنظافة واسعة وتشمل نظافة مدرستك وشارعك ومدينتك.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
37-2	God (Glory be to him) loves good for his creatures, mainly mankind. He likes man to be healthy as he wants man to believe in him. Since cleanliness is the key to health, so cleanliness is next to godliness. Cleanliness is extendable to include your school, street and town.	ان الله يحب الخير لخلقه, خاصة الانسان, انه يحب ان يكون الانسان بصحة مثلما يريد الانسان ان يؤمن به. ولما كانت النظافة هي مفتاح الصحة. فان النظافة اقرب شئ الى تقوى الله. والنظافة واسعة وتشمل نظافة مدرستك وشارعك ومدينتك.	zero	Def al--	3.8.2

37-3	God (Glory be to him) loves good for his creatures, mainly --mankind. He likes man to be healthy as he wants man to believe in him. Since cleanliness is the key to health, so cleanliness is next to godliness. Cleanliness is extendable to include your school, street and town.	ان الله يحب الخير لخلقه, خاصة الانسان, انه يحب ان يكون الانسان بصحة مثلما يريد الانسان ان يؤمن به. ولما كانت النظافة هي مفتاح الصحة. فان النظافة اقرب شئ الى تقوى الله. والنظافة واسعة وتشمل نظافة مدرستك وشارعك ومدينتك.	zero	Def al-	3.8
37-4	God (Glory be to him) loves good for his creatures, mainly mankind. He likes man to be healthy as he wants man to believe in him. Since --cleanliness is the key to health, so cleanliness is next to godliness. Cleanliness is extendable to include your school, street and town.	ان الله يحب الخير لخلقه, خاصة الانسان, انه يحب ان يكون الانسان بصحة مثلما يريد الانسان ان يؤمن به. ولما كانت النظافة هي مفتاح الصحة. فان النظافة اقرب شئ الى تقوى الله. والنظافة واسعة وتشمل نظافة مدرستك وشارعك ومدينتك.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
38-1 A	--Volcanoes erupt violently in some regions.	تثور البراكين فى بعض الجهات ثورانا شديدا.	zero	Def al--	3.8.1
38-2	They demolish --houses and crush buildings.	فتهدم المنازل هدمًا وتلك المباني دكا.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
38-3	They throw out --fire continually.	وتقذف النيران قذفا مستمرا.	zero	Def al--	3.8.2
38-4	Then the inhabitants get frightened. You hear nothing except women crying and children screaming.	فيخاف السكان خوفا عظيما فلا تسمع غير بكاء النساء وصراخ الاطفال .	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
38-5	Then the inhabitants get frightened. You hear nothing except --women crying and children screaming.	فيخاف السكان خوفا عظيما فلا تسمع غير بكاء النساء وصراخ الاطفال.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
38-6	Then the inhabitants get frightened. You hear nothing except women crying and --children screaming.	فيخاف السكان خوفا عظيما فلا تسمع غير بكاء النساء وصراخ الاطفال.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
39-1 A	When al-Mu'izz, the Fatimid, entered Egypt and took Cairo the capital of his Caliphate, he began to spread (the) knowledge in the town and he judged with justice and governed the people with kindness and gentleness.	لما دخل المعز الفاطمي مصر, اتخذ القاهرة مقر الخلافة, بدأ ينشر المعارف فى البلاد, ويحكم بالعدل, ويسوس الناس بالرفق واللين.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.4
39-2	When al-Mu'izz, the Fatimid, entered --Egypt and took Cairo the capital of his Caliphate, he began to spread (the) knowledge in the town and he judged	لما دخل المعز الفاطمي مصر, اتخذ القاهرة مقر الخلافة, بدأ ينشر المعارف فى البلاد, ويحكم بالعدل, ويسوس الناس بالرفق واللين.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4

	with justice and governed the people with kindness and gentleness.				
39-3	When al-Mu'izz, the Fatimid, entered Egypt and took Cairo the capital of his Caliphate, he began to spread (the) knowledge in the town and he judged with justice and governed the people with kindness and gentleness.	لما دخل المعز الفاطمي مصر , اتخذ القاهرة مقر الخلافة, بدأ ينشر المعارف في البلاد, ويحكم بالعدل, ويسوس الناس بالرفق واللين.	def	Def through addition	3.7.1.2
39-4	When al-Mu'izz, the Fatimid, entered Egypt and took Cairo the capital of his Caliphate, he began to spread the knowledge in the town and he judged with justice and governed the people with kindness and gentleness.	لما دخل المعز الفاطمي مصر , اتخذ القاهرة مقر الخلافة, بدأ ينشر المعارف في البلاد, ويحكم بالعدل, ويسوس الناس بالرفق واللين.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
39-5	When al-Mu'izz, the Fatimid, entered Egypt and took Cairo the capital of his Caliphate, he began to spread knowledge in the town and he judged with justice and governed the people with kindness and gentleness.	لما دخل المعز الفاطمي مصر , اتخذ القاهرة مقر الخلافة, بدأ ينشر المعارف في البلاد , ويحكم بالعدل, ويسوس الناس بالرفق واللين.	def	Def al--	3.7.1.3
39-6	When al-Mu'izz, the Fatimid, entered Egypt and took Cairo the capital of his Caliphate, he began to spread knowledge in the town and he judged with the justice and governed the people with kindness and gentleness.	لما دخل المعز الفاطمي مصر , اتخذ القاهرة مقرا لخلافته, بدأ ينشر المعارف في البلاد, ويحكم بالعدل , ويسوس الناس بالرفق واللين.	zero	Def al--	3.8.2
39-7	When al-Mu'izz, the Fatimid, entered Egypt and took Cairo the capital of his Caliphate, he began to spread knowledge in the town and he judged with justice and governed the people with kindness and gentleness.	لما دخل المعز الفاطمي مصر , اتخذ القاهرة مقرا لخلافته, بدأ ينشر المعارف في البلاد, ويحكم بالعدل, ويسوس الناس بالرفق واللين.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.2
39-8	When al-Mu'izz, the Fatimid, entered Egypt and took Cairo the capital of his Caliphate, he began to spread knowledge in the town and he judged with justice and governed the people with the kindness and gentleness.	لما دخل المعز الفاطمي مصر , اتخذ القاهرة مقرا لخلافته, بدأ ينشر المعارف في البلاد, ويحكم بالعدل, ويسوس بالرفق الناس بالرفق واللين.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
39-9	When al-Mu'izz, the Fatimid, entered Egypt and	لما دخل المعز الفاطمي مصر , اتخذ القاهرة مقرا لخلافته, بدأ ينشر	zero	Def al-	3.8.2

	took Cairo the capital of his Caliphate, he began to spread knowledge in the town and he judged with justice and governed the people with kindness and --gentleness.	المعارف في البلاد, ويحكم بالعدل, ويسوس الناس بالرفق واللين.			
39-10	So, the markets of knowledge arose and the literary "goods" became plenty and wealth increased.	فقامت اسواق العلم, ونفقت بضائر الادب, وتوافرت الاموال.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.2
39-11	So, the markets of knowledge arose and the literary "goods" became plenty and wealth increased.	فقامت اسواق العلم, ونفقت بضائر الادب, وتوافرت الاموال.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.3
39-12	So, the markets of knowledge arose and the literary "goods" became plenty and --wealth increased.	فقامت اسواق العلم, ونفقت بضائر الادب, وتوافرت الاموال.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
40-1 E	Pilot: ladies and gentlemen, we shall shortly be landing at --New York airport.	قائد الطائرة: سيداتي ساداتي, بعد قليل سنهبط في مطار نيويورك.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
40-2	--Local time is five thirty in the afternoon.	الساعة الان حسب التوقيت المحلي الخامسة والنصف في المساء .	zero	Def al--	3.8.2
40-3	Local time is five thirty in the afternoon.	الساعة الان حسب التوقيت المحلي الخامسة والنصف في المساء .	def	Def al-	3.8.6
40-4	The outside temperature is twenty-eight degrees.	وتبلغ درجة الحرارة بالخارج ثمانية وعشرين درجة مئوية.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.3
40-5	For your own safety, please make sure that --seat-belts are fastened and extinguish all cigarettes.	من اجل سلامتكم نرجو التأكد من ربط الاحزمة واطفاء السجائر .	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
40-6	For your own safety, please make sure that seat-belts are fastened and extinguish all --cigarettes.	من اجل سلامتكم نرجو التأكد من ربط الاحزمة واطفاء السجائر .	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
40-7	Will --passengers please remain seated until the aircraft has come to a complete halt.	وعلى السادة الركاب ان يبقوا في اماكنهم الى ان تتوقف الطائرة تماما.	zero	Def al--	3.8.1
40-8	Will passengers please remain seated until the aircraft has come to a complete halt?	وعلى السادة الركاب ان يبقوا في اماكنهم الى ان تتوقف الطائرة تماما.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.1
40-9	We hope you have had a pleasant flight.	نرجو ان تكونوا قد استمتعتم برحلة طيبة.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
41-1 E	Start your day by drinking two glasses of --water	ابداً يومك بشرب كوبين من الماء واشرب من ستة الى ثمانية	zero	Def al-	3.8.2

	and drink at least six to eight more during the rest of the day.	اكواب عبي الاقل بقية اليوم.			
41-2	Start your day by drinking two glasses of water and drink at least six to eight more during the rest of the day.	ابدأ يومك بشرب كوبين من الماء واشرب من ستة الى ثمانية اكواب عبي الاقل بقية اليوم.	def	Def through addition	3.7.1.2
41-3	Start your day by drinking two glasses of water and drink at least six to eight more during the rest of the day.	ابدأ يومك بشرب كوبين من الماء واشرب من ستة الى ثمانية اكواب عبي الاقل بقية اليوم.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.2
41-4	Water is absolutely vital for the body to function properly.	الماء حيوي تماما (جدا) للجسد كي يؤدي وظيفته بطريقة سليمة.	Zero	Def al-	3.8.2
41-5	Water is absolutely vital for the body to function properly.	الماء حيوي تماما (جدا) للجسد كي يؤدي وظيفته بطريقة سليمة.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
41-6	Water also helps to clean the body, so one should take a daily bath.	ويساعد الماء ايضا على تنظيف الجسم لذا على المرء ان يأخذ حمام يوميا.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
41-7	Water also helps to clean the body, so one should take a daily bath.	ويساعد الماء ايضا على تنظيف الجسم لذا على المرء ان يأخذ حمام يوميا.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
41-8	Water also helps to clean the body, so one should take a daily bath.	ويساعد الماء ايضا على تنظيف الجسم لذا على المرء ان يأخذ حمام يوميا.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
42-1 A	A retailer is the person who sells goods in small quantities to consumer whereas a wholesaler buys large quantities of goods from the manufacturer and resells them to the retailer in small quantities.	تاجر التجزئة هو الشخص الذي يبيع البضاعة بكميات صغيرة للمستهلك في حين ان تاجر الجملة يشتري كميات كبيرة من البضائع ويعيد بيعها لتاجر التجزئة بكميات اصغر.	indef	Def through addition	3.9.1.6
42-2	A retailer is the person who sells goods in small quantities to consumer whereas a wholesaler buys large quantities of goods from the manufacturer and resells them to the retailer in small quantities.	تاجر التجزئة هو الشخص الذي يبيع البضاعة بكميات صغيرة للمستهلك في حين ان تاجر الجملة يشتري كميات كبيرة من البضائع ويعيد بيعها لتاجر التجزئة بكميات اصغر.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.2
42-3	A retailer is the person who sells goods in small quantities to consumer whereas a wholesaler buys large quantities of goods from the manufacturer and resells them to the retailer in small quantities.	تاجر التجزئة هو الشخص الذي يبيع البضاعة بكميات صغيرة للمستهلك في حين ان تاجر الجملة يشتري كميات كبيرة من البضائع ويعيد بيعها لتاجر التجزئة بكميات اصغر.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1

42-4	A retailer is the person who sells goods in small quantities to consumer whereas a wholesaler buys large quantities of goods from the manufacturer and resells them to the retailer in small quantities.	تاجر التجزئة هو الشخص الذى يبيع البضاعة بكميات صغيرة للمستهلك فى حين ان تاجر الجملة يشتري كميات كبيرة من البضائع ويعيد بيعها لتاجر التجزئة بكميات اصغر .	zero	zero	3.8.1
42-5	A retailer is the person who sells goods in small quantities to consumer whereas a wholesaler buys large quantities of goods from the manufacturer and resells them to the retailer in small quantities.	تاجر التجزئة هو الشخص الذى يبيع البضاعة بكميات صغيرة للمستهلك فى حين ان تاجر الجملة يشتري كميات كبيرة من البضائع ويعيد بيعها لتاجر التجزئة بكميات اصغر .	indef	Def through addition	3.9.1.6
42-6	A retailer is the person who sells goods in small quantities to consumer whereas a wholesaler buys large quantities of goods from the manufacturer and resells them to the retailer in small quantities.	تاجر التجزئة هو الشخص الذى يبيع البضاعة بكميات صغيرة للمستهلك فى حين ان تاجر الجملة يشتري كميات كبيرة من البضائع ويعيد بيعها لتاجر التجزئة بكميات اصغر .	zero	zero	3.8.1
42-7	A retailer is the person who sells goods in small quantities to consumer whereas a wholesaler buys large quantities of goods from the manufacturer and resells them to the retailer in small quantities.	تاجر التجزئة هو الشخص الذى يبيع البضاعة بكميات صغيرة للمستهلك فى حين ان تاجر الجملة يشتري كميات كبيرة من البضائع ويعيد بيعها لتاجر التجزئة بكميات اصغر .	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
42-8	A retailer is the person who sells goods in small quantities to consumer whereas a wholesaler buys large quantities of goods from the manufacturer and resells them to the retailer in small quantities.	تاجر التجزئة هو الشخص الذى يبيع البضاعة بكميات صغيرة للمستهلك فى حين ان تاجر الجملة يشتري كميات كبيرة من البضائع ويعيد بيعها لتاجر التجزئة بكميات اصغر .	def	Def through addition	3.7.1.1
43-1 A	Many of the things we have are made of plastic. Dishes, knives, forks, raincoats, toys, brushes, buttons and music records; these are some of the many ways in which plastics are used.	لدينا كثير من الاشياء مصنوعة من البلاستيك, مثال ذلك الاطباق والسكاكين واشواك الاكل ومعاطف المطر واللعب والفرش والازرار واسطوانات الموسيقى, وهذا بعض من الاشياء العديدة التى يستخدم فى صنعها البلاستيك.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
43-2	Many of the things we have are made of plastic. Dishes, knives, forks, raincoats, toys, brushes, buttons and music records; these are some of the many ways in which plastics are used.	لدينا كثير من الاشياء مصنوعة من البلاستيك, مثال ذلك الاطباق والسكاكين واشواك الاكل ومعاطف المطر واللعب والفرش والازرار واسطوانات الموسيقى, وهذا بعض من الاشياء العديدة التى يستخدم فى صنعها البلاستيك.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
43-3	Many of the things we have are made of plastic. Dishes, knives, forks, raincoats, toys, brushes,	لدينا كثير من الاشياء مصنوعة من البلاستيك, مثال ذلك الاطباق	zero	Def al-	3.8.1

	buttons and music records; these are some of the many ways in which plastics are used.	والسكاكين واشواك الاكل ومعاطف المطر واللعب والفرش والازرار واسطوانات الموسيقى، وهذا بعض من الاشياء العديدة التى يستخدم فى صنعها البلاستيك.			
43-4	Many of the things we have are made of plastic. Dishes, knives, forks, raincoats, toys, brushes, buttons and music records; these are some of the many ways in which plastics are used.	لدينا كثير من الاشياء مصنوعة من البلاستيك، مثال ذلك الاطباق والسكاكين واشواك الاكل ومعاطف المطر واللعب والفرش والازرار واسطوانات الموسيقى، وهذا بعض من الاشياء العديدة التى يستخدم فى صنعها البلاستيك.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
43-5	Many of the things we have are made of plastic. Dishes, knives, forks, raincoats, toys, brushes, buttons and music records; these are some of the many ways in which plastics are used.	لدينا كثير من الاشياء مصنوعة من البلاستيك، مثال ذلك الاطباق والسكاكين واشواك الاكل ومعاطف المطر واللعب والفرش والازرار واسطوانات الموسيقى، وهذا بعض من الاشياء العديدة التى يستخدم فى صنعها البلاستيك.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.1
43-6	Many of the things we have are made of plastic. Dishes, knives, forks, raincoats, toys, brushes, buttons and music records; these are some of the many ways in which plastics are used.	لدينا كثير من الاشياء اشياء كثيرة مصنوعة من البلاستيك، مثال ذلك الاطباق والسكاكين واشواك الاكل ومعاطف المطر واللعب والفرش والازرار واسطوانات الموسيقى، وهذا بعض من الاشياء العديدة التى يستخدم فى صنعها البلاستيك.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.1
43-7	Many of the things we have are made of plastic. Dishes, knives, forks, raincoats, toys, brushes, buttons and music records; these are some of the many ways in which plastics are used.	لدينا كثير من الاشياء مصنوعة من البلاستيك، مثال ذلك الاطباق والسكاكين واشواك الاكل ومعاطف المطر واللعب والفرش والازرار واسطوانات الموسيقى، وهذا بعض من الاشياء العديدة التى يستخدم فى صنعها البلاستيك.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
43-8	Many of the things we have are made of plastic. Dishes, knives, forks, raincoats, toys, brushes, buttons and music records; these are some of the many ways in which plastics are used.	لدينا كثير من الاشياء مصنوعة من البلاستيك، مثال ذلك الاطباق والسكاكين واشواك الاكل ومعاطف المطر واللعب والفرش والازرار واسطوانات الموسيقى، وهذا بعض من الاشياء العديدة التى يستخدم فى صنعها البلاستيك.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
43-9	Many of the things we have are made of plastic. Dishes, knives, forks, raincoats, toys, brushes,	لدينا كثير من الاشياء مصنوعة من البلاستيك، مثال ذلك الاطباق	zero	Def al--	3.8.1

	buttons and music records; these are some of the many ways in which plastics are used.	والسكاكين واشواك الاكل ومعاطف المطر واللعبة والفروش والازرار واسطوانات الموسيقى, وهذا بعض من الاشياء العديدة التي يستخدم في صنعها البلاستيك.			
43-10	Many of the things we have are made of plastic. Dishes, knives, forks, raincoats, toys, brushes, buttons and music records; these are some of the many ways in which plastics are used.	لدينا كثير من الاشياء مصنوعة من البلاستيك, مثال ذلك الاطباق والسكاكين واشواك الاكل ومعاطف المطر واللعبة والفروش والازرار واسطوانات الموسيقى, وهذا بعض من الاشياء العديدة التي يستخدم في صنعها البلاستيك.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.1
43-11	Plastics are now fast taking the place of wood, leather, glass, copper and metal.	يحتل البلاستيك الان بسرعة مكان الخشب والجلد والزجاج والنحاس والمعدن.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
43-12	Plastics are now fast taking the place of wood, leather, glass, copper and metal.	يحتل البلاستيك الان بسرعة مكان الخشب والجلد والزجاج والنحاس والمعدن.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.2
43-13	Plastics are now fast taking the place of wood, leather, glass, copper and metal.	يحتل البلاستيك الان بسرعة مكان الخشب والجلد والزجاج والنحاس والمعدن.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
43-14	Plastics are now fast taking the place of wood, leather, glass, copper and metal.	يحتل البلاستيك الان بسرعة مكان الخشب والجلد والزجاج والنحاس والمعدن.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
43-15	Plastics are now fast taking the place of wood, leather, glass, copper and metal.	يحتل البلاستيك الان بسرعة مكان الخشب والجلد والزجاج والنحاس والمعدن.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
43-16	Plastics are now fast taking the place of wood, leather, glass, copper and metal.	يحتل البلاستيك الان بسرعة مكان الخشب والجلد والزجاج والنحاس والمعدن.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
43-17	Plastics are now fast taking the place of wood, leather, glass, copper and metal.	يحتل البلاستيك الان بسرعة مكان الخشب والجلد والزجاج والنحاس والمعدن.	zero	Def al-	2.8.2
43-18	Plastic products are popular partly because they are inexpensive and clean.	يعزى انتشار منتجات البلاستيك بعض الشيء الى انها رخيصة ونظيفة.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.1
44-1 E	President George W. Bush, addressing reporters	خرج الرئيس جورج دبليو بوش في حديثه الى الصحافيين في	zero	Def al-	

	in Texas last week, went out of his way to praise Germany, that second-to-last bastion of bloody-minded Old Europe.	تكساس الاسبوع الماضى عن طوره فى مديح المانيا وهى المعقل قبل الاخير فى اوروبا القديمة الدموية.			
44-2	President George W. Bush, addressing reporters in Texas last week, went out of his way to praise Germany, that second-to-last bastion of bloody-minded Old Europe.	خرج الرئيس جورج دبليو بوش فى حديثه الى الصحافيين فى تكساس الاسبوع الماضى عن طوره فى مديح المانيا وهى المعقل قبل الاخير فى اوروبا القديمة الدموية.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
44-3	President George W. Bush, addressing reporters in Texas last week, went out of his way to praise Germany, that second-to-last bastion of bloody-minded Old Europe.	خرج الرئيس جورج دبليو بوش فى حديثه الى الصحافيين فى تكساس الاسبوع الماضى عن طوره فى مديح المانيا وهى المعقل قبل الاخير فى اوروبا القديمة الدموية.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
44-4	President George W. Bush, addressing reporters in Texas last week, went out of his way to praise Germany, that second-to-last bastion of bloody-minded Old Europe.	خرج الرئيس جورج دبليو بوش فى حديثه الى الصحافيين فى تكساس الاسبوع الماضى عن طوره فى مديح المانيا وهى المعقل قبل الاخير فى اوروبا القديمة الدموية.	zero	Def al-	3.8.6
44-5	President George W. Bush, addressing reporters in Texas last week, went out of his way to praise Germany, that second-to-last bastion of bloody-minded Old Europe.	خرج الرئيس جورج دبليو بوش فى حديثه الى الصحافيين فى تكساس الاسبوع الماضى عن طوره فى مديح المانيا وهى المعقل قبل الاخير فى اوروبا القديمة الدموية.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
44-6	Germany has taken a very active role in Afghanistan, and we are very thankful for that.	قد قامت المانيا بدور نشط جدا فى افغانستان ونحن لها ممتنون جدا على هذا.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
44-7	Germany has taken a very active role in Afghanistan, and we are very thankful for that.	قد قامت المانيا بدور نشط جدا فى افغانستان ونحن لها ممتنون جدا على هذا.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
44-8	Germany has taken a very active role in Afghanistan, and we are very thankful for that.	قد قامت المانيا بدور نشط جدا فى افغانستان ونحن لها ممتنون جدا على هذا.	zero	zero	2.7.1.4
44-9	As NATO steps forward, Germany has assumed a big responsibility. And we really appreciate the German participation.	حاف الناتو تقدم للمساعدة فان المانيا تحملت مسؤولية كبيرة. ونحن نقدر فعلا لالمانيا هذه المشاركة.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
44-10	As NATO steps forward, Germany has assumed a big responsibility. And we really appreciate the German participation.	حاف الناتو تقدم للمساعدة فان المانيا تحملت مسؤولية كبيرة. ونحن نقدر فعلا لالمانيا هذه المشاركة.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4

44-11	As NATO steps forward, Germany has assumed a big responsibility. And we really appreciate the German participation.	حاف الناتو تقدم للمساعدة فان المانيا تحملت مسؤولية كبيرة. ونحن نقدر فعلا لالمانيا هذه المشاركة.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
44-12	As NATO steps forward, Germany has assumed a big responsibility. And we really appreciate the German participation.	حاف الناتو تقدم للمساعدة فان المانيا تحملت مسؤولية كبيرة. ونحن نقدر فعلا لالمانيا هذه المشاركة.	def	Definite through the definite article al-	3.7.1.1
44-13	It seems only yesterday that Washington and Berlin were at each other's throats over Iraq. But apparently the United States is tired of being hammered as a unilateralist, and has even realized it needs Old Europe at least Germany.	يبدو وكأن الامر حدث بالامس حين كانت علاقات واشنطن وبرلين تمر بفترة توتر شديد بسبب العراق ولكنه يبدو ان الولايات المتحدة قد تعبت من مواصلة انتقادها بانها دولة احادية السياسات بل ويمكن ان تكون ادركت انها بحاجة الى ما اسمته باوروبا القديمة او لالمانيا على الاقل.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
44-14	It seems only yesterday that Washington and Berlin were at each other's throats over Iraq. But apparently the United States is tired of being hammered as a unilateralist, and has even realized it needs Old Europe at least Germany.	يبدو وكأن الامر حدث بالامس حين كانت علاقات واشنطن وبرلين تمر بفترة توتر شديد بسبب العراق ولكنه يبدو ان الولايات المتحدة قد تعبت من مواصلة انتقادها بانها دولة احادية السياسات بل ويمكن ان تكون ادركت انها بحاجة الى ما اسمته باوروبا القديمة او لالمانيا على الاقل.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
44-15	It seems only yesterday that Washington and Berlin were at each other's throats over Iraq. But apparently the United States is tired of being hammered as a unilateralist, and has even realized it needs Old Europe at least Germany.	يبدو وكأن الامر حدث بالامس حين كانت علاقات واشنطن وبرلين تمر بفترة توتر شديد بسبب العراق ولكنه يبدو ان الولايات المتحدة قد تعبت من مواصلة انتقادها بانها دولة احادية السياسات بل ويمكن ان تكون ادركت انها بحاجة الى ما اسمته باوروبا القديمة او لالمانيا على الاقل.	zero	Def al-	3.7.1.4
44-16	It seems only yesterday that Washington and Berlin were at each other's throats over Iraq. But apparently the United States is tired of being hammered as a unilateralist, and has even realized	يبدو وكأن الامر حدث بالامس حين كانت علاقات واشنطن وبرلين تمر بفترة توتر شديد بسبب العراق ولكنه يبدو ان الولايات المتحدة قد تعبت من مواصلة انتقادها بانها دولة احادية السياسات بل	def	Def al-	3.7.1.5

	it needs Old Europe at least Germany.	ويمكن ان تكون ادركت انها بحاجة الى ما اسمته باوروبا القديمة او لالمانيا على الاقل.			
44-17	It seems only yesterday that Washington and Berlin were at each other's throats over Iraq. But apparently the United States is tired of being hammered as a unilateralist, and has even realized it needs Old Europe at least Germany.	يبدو وكأن الامر حدث بالامس حين كانت علاقات واشنطن وبرلين تمر بفترة توتر شديد بسبب العراق ولكنه يبدو ان الولايات المتحدة قد تعبت من مواصلة انتقادها بانها دولة احادية السياسات بل ويمكن ان تكون ادركت انها بحاجة الى ما اسمته باوروبا القديمة او لالمانيا على الاقل.	indef	zero	3.9.1.8
44-18	It seems only yesterday that Washington and Berlin were at each other's throats over Iraq. But apparently the United States is tired of being hammered as a unilateralist, and has even realized it needs Old Europe at least Germany.	يبدو وكأن الامر حدث بالامس حين كانت علاقات واشنطن وبرلين تمر بفترة توتر شديد بسبب العراق ولكنه يبدو ان الولايات المتحدة قد تعبت من مواصلة انتقادها بانها دولة احادية السياسات بل ويمكن ان تكون ادركت انها بحاجة الى ما اسمته باوروبا القديمة او لالمانيا على الاقل.	zero	Definite through addition	3.7.1.4
45-1 A	The stages of education in the Arab world are: primary, preparatory, secondary stages, and university.	مراحل التعليم في العالم العربي هي الابتدائية والاعدادية والثانوية والجامعية.	zero	Def al-	3.7.1.2
45-2	The stages of education in the Arab world are: primary, preparatory, secondary, and university.	مراحل التعليم في العالم العربي هي الابتدائية والاعدادية والثانوية والجامعية.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.5
45-3	The stages of education in the Arab world are: primary, preparatory, secondary stages, and university.	مراحل التعليم في العالم العربي هي الابتدائية والاعدادية والثانوية والجامعية.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
45-4	The stages of education in the Arab world are: primary, preparatory, secondary stages, and university.	مراحل التعليم في العالم العربي هي الابتدائية والاعدادية والثانوية والجامعية.	zero	Definite through the definite article al	3.8.3
45-5	The ministries of education determine the programs of instruction, set the examination times, and appoint the teachers in the public	تقرر وزارات التربية والتعليم مناهج التعليم وتحدد مواعيد الامتحانات وتعين المعلمين والمعلمات في المدارس الحكومية.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.2

	schools.				
45-6	The ministries of education determine the programs of instruction, set the examination times, and appoint the teachers in the public schools.	تقرر وزارات التربية والتعليم مناهج التعليم وتحدد مواعيد الامتحانات وتعين المعلمين والمعلمات في المدارس الحكومية.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.2
45-7	The ministries of education determine the programs of instruction, set the examination times, and appoint the teachers in the public schools.	تقرر وزارات التربية والتعليم مناهج التعليم وتحدد مواعيد الامتحانات وتعين المعلمين والمعلمات في المدارس الحكومية.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.3
45-8	The ministries of education determine the programs of instruction, set the examination times, and appoint the teachers in the public schools.	تقرر وزارات التربية والتعليم مناهج التعليم وتحدد مواعيد الامتحانات وتعين المعلمين والمعلمات في المدارس الحكومية.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
45-9	The ministries of education determine the programs of instruction, set the examination times, and appoint the teachers in the public schools.	تقرر وزارات التربية والتعليم مناهج التعليم وتحدد مواعيد الامتحانات وتعين المعلمين والمعلمات في المدارس الحكومية.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
45-10	Schools and universities in the Arab world teach French, English, Arabic, along with other subjects.	تدرس المدارس والجامعات في العالم العربي الفرنسية والانجليزية والعربية الى جانب المواضيع الاخرى.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
45-11	Schools and universities in the Arab world teach French, English, Arabic, along with other subjects.	تدرس المدارس والجامعات في العالم العربي الفرنسية والانجليزية والعربية الى جانب المواضيع الاخرى.	zero	Def.al-	3.8.1
45-12	Schools and universities in the arab world teach French, English, Arabic , along with other subjects.	تدرس المدارس والجامعات في العالم العربي الفرنسية والانجليزية والعربية الى جانب المواضيع الاخرى.	zero	Def.al-	3.8.2
45-13	Schools and universities in the Arab world teach French, English , Arabic, along with other subjects.	تدرس المدارس والجامعات في العالم العربي الفرنسية والانجليزية والعربية الى جانب المواضيع الاخرى.	zero	Def.al-	3.8.2
45-14	There are a number of private schools and universities, some foreign and some Arab.	هناك عدد من المدارس والجامعات الخاصة, بعضها اجنبية وبعضها عربية.	indef	zero	3.9.1.7
45-15	private schools and universities	هناك عدد من المدارس والجامعات الخاصة, بعضها اجنبية وبعضها عربية.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.1

46-1 E	On behalf of the people and the council of State of Guinea-Bissau, and on my own behalf, I have the honour to send cordial greetings to your Excellency.	بالنيابة عن الشعب ومجلس الدولة بغينيا بيسا وبالاصالة عن نفسى فأنه يشرفنى ان ارسل تحياتى الصادقة لسعادتكم .	zero	Def. al-	3.8.13
46-2	On behalf of the people and the council of State of Guinea-Bissau, and on my own behalf, I have the honour to send cordial greetings to your Excellency.	بالنيابة عن الشعب ومجلس الدولة بغينيا بيسا وبالاصالة عن نفسى فأنه يشرفنى ان ارسل تحياتى الصادقة لسعادتكم .	def	Def.al-	3.7.1.3
46-3	On behalf of the people and the council of State of Guinea-Bissau, and on my own behalf, I have the honour to send cordial greetings to your Excellency.	بالنيابة عن الشعب ومجلس الدولة بغينيا بيسا وبالاصالة عن نفسى فأنه لى الشرف ان ارسل تحياتى الصادقة لسعادتكم .	def	Def. addition	3.7.1.2
46-4	On behalf of the people and the council of State of Guinea-Bissau, and on my own behalf, I have the honour to send cordial greetings to your Excellency.	بالنيابة عن الشعب ومجلس الدولة بغينيا بيسا وبالاصالة عن نفسى فأنه لى الشرف ان ارسل تحياتى الصادقة لسعادتكم .	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
46-5	On behalf of the people and the council of State of Guinea-Bissau, and on my own behalf, I have the honour to send cordial greetings to your Excellency.	بالنيابة عن الشعب ومجلس الدولة بغينيا بيسا وبالاصالة عن نفسى فأنه لى الشرف ان ارسل تحياتى الصادقة لسعادتكم .	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.3
46-6	On behalf of the people and the council of State of Guinea-Bissau, and on my own behalf, I have the honour to send cordial greetings to your Excellency.	بالنيابة عن الشعب ومجلس الدولة بغينيا بيسا وبالاصالة عن نفسى فأنه لى الشرف ان ارسل تحياتى الصادقة لسعادتكم .	zero	Def. addition	3.8.1
46-7	In reaffirming our total support for the objectives of the Conference, which constitute a common goal for the developing countries, we hope that irreversible progress will be made towards new forms of cooperation, while recognizing the importance of the continuation of an effective North-South dialogue with a view to the acceleration of independent national economic development of our countries for the benefit of	اننا واذ نؤكد من جديد دعمنا الكامل لاهداف المؤتمر التى تشكل هدفا مشتركا للدول النامية ونحن نأمل ان يتم احراز تقدما مضطردا فى القريب العاجل بأشكال جديدة من التعاون فى حين اننا ندرك اهمية مواصلة حوار بناء بين دول الشمال والجنوب وذلك لهدف دفع عجلة التنمية للاقتصاد الوطنى المستقل لما فيه منفعة شعوبنا والانسانية جمعاء .	def	Def. addition	3.7.1.2

	our peoples and humanity as a whole.				
46-8	In reaffirming our total support for the objectives of the Conference, which constitute a common goal for the developing countries, we hope that irreversible progress will be made towards new forms of cooperation, while recognizing the importance of the continuation of an effective North-South dialogue with a view to the acceleration of independent national economic development of our countries for the benefit of our peoples and humanity as a whole.	اننا واذ نؤكد من جديد دعمنا الكامل لاهداف المؤتمر التي تشكل هدفا مشتركا للدول النامية ونحن نأمل ان يتم احراز تقدما مضطردا في القريب العاجل بأشكال جديدة من التعاون في حين اننا ندرك اهمية مواصلة حوار بناء بين دول الشمال والجنوب وذلك لهدف دفع عجلة التنمية للاقتصاد الوطنى المستقل لما فيه منفعة شعوبنا والانسانية جمعاء.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
46-9	In reaffirming our total support for the objectives of the Conference, which constitute a common goal for the developing countries, we hope that irreversible progress will be made towards new forms of cooperation, while recognizing the importance of the continuation of an effective North-South dialogue with a view to the acceleration of independent national economic development of our countries for the benefit of our peoples and humanity as a whole.	اننا واذ نؤكد من جديد دعمنا الكامل لاهداف المؤتمر التي تشكل هدفا مشتركا للدول النامية ونحن نأمل ان يتم احراز تقدما مضطردا في القريب العاجل بأشكال جديدة من التعاون في حين اننا ندرك اهمية مواصلة حوار بناء بين دول الشمال والجنوب وذلك لهدف دفع عجلة التنمية للاقتصاد الوطنى المستقل لما فيه منفعة شعوبنا والانسانية جمعاء.	def	Def. al-	3.7.1.5
46-10	In reaffirming our total support for the objectives of the Conference, which constitute a common goal for the developing countries, we hope that irreversible progress will be made towards new forms of cooperation,	اننا واذ نؤكد من جديد دعمنا الكامل لاهداف المؤتمر التي تشكل هدفا مشتركا للدول النامية ونحن نأمل ان يتم احراز تقدما مضطردا في القريب العاجل بأشكال جديدة من	zero	zero	3.8.2
46-11	In reaffirming our total support for the objectives of the Conference, which constitute a common goal for the developing countries, we hope that irreversible progress will be made towards new forms of cooperation,	اننا واذ نؤكد من جديد دعمنا الكامل لاهداف المؤتمر التي تشكل هدفا مشتركا للدول النامية ونحن نأمل ان يتم احراز تقدما مضطردا في القريب العاجل بأشكال جديدة من التعاون والانسانية جمعاء.	zero	Def. al-	3.8.2
46-12	In reaffirming our total support for the objectives of the Conference, which constitute a common	اننا واذ نؤكد من جديد دعمنا الكامل لاهداف المؤتمر التي تشكل هدفا مشتركا للدول النامية ونحن نأمل ان يتم احراز تقدما مضطردا	def	zero	3.7.1.2

	goal for the developing countries, we hope that irreversible progress will be made towards new forms of cooperation, while recognizing the importance of the continuation of an effective North-South dialogue	في القريب العاجل بأشكال جديدة من التعاون في حين اننا ندرك أهمية مواصلة حوار بناء بين دول الشمال والجنوب وذلك لهدف دفع عجلة التنمية للاقتصاد الوطنى المستقل لما فيه منفعة شعوبنا والانسانية جمعاء .			
46-13	In reaffirming our total support for the objectives of the Conference, which constitute a common goal for the developing countries, we hope that irreversible progress will be made towards new forms of cooperation, while recognizing the importance of the continuation of an effective North-South dialogue	اننا واذ نؤكد من جديد دعمنا الكامل لاهداف المؤتمر التى تشكل هدفا مشتركا للدول النامية ونحن نأمل ان يتم احراز تقدم مضطردا في القريب العاجل بأشكال جديدة من التعاون في حين اننا ندرك أهمية مواصلة حوار بناء بين دول الشمال والجنوب وذلك لهدف دفع عجلة التنمية للاقتصاد الوطنى المستقل لما فيه منفعة شعوبنا والانسانية جمعاء .	indef	zero	3.9.1.6
46-14	In reaffirming our total support for the objectives of the Conference, which constitute a common goal for the developing countries, we hope that irreversible progress will be made towards new forms of cooperation, while recognizing the importance of the continuation of an effective North-South dialogue with a view to the acceleration of independent national economic development of our countries for the benefit of our peoples and humanity as a whole.	اننا واذ نؤكد من جديد دعمنا الكامل لاهداف المؤتمر التى تشكل هدفا مشتركا للدول النامية ونحن نأمل ان يتم احراز تقدم مضطردا في القريب العاجل بأشكال جديدة من التعاون في حين اننا ندرك أهمية مواصلة حوار بناء بين دول الشمال والجنوب وذلك لهدف دفع عجلة التنمية للاقتصاد الوطنى المستقل لما فيه منفعة شعوبنا والانسانية جمعاء .	def	Def. addition	3.7.1.2
46-15	while recognizing the importance of the continuation of an effective North-South dialogue with a view to the acceleration of independent national economic development of our countries for the benefit of our peoples and humanity as a whole.	اننا واذ نؤكد من جديد دعمنا الكامل لاهداف المؤتمر التى تشكل هدفا مشتركا للدول النامية ونحن نأمل ان يتم احراز تقدم مضطردا في القريب العاجل بأشكال جديدة من التعاون في حين اننا ندرك أهمية مواصلة حوار بناء بين دول الشمال والجنوب وذلك لهدف دفع عجلة التنمية للاقتصاد الوطنى المستقل لما فيه منفعة شعوبنا والانسانية جمعاء .	zero	zero	3.9.1.5
46-16	In reaffirming our total support for the objectives of the Conference, which constitute a common	اننا واذ نؤكد من جديد دعمنا الكامل لاهداف المؤتمر التى تشكل	def	Def through	3.7.1.2

	goal for the developing countries, we hope that irreversible progress will be made towards new forms of cooperation, while recognizing the importance of the continuation of an effective North-South dialogue with a view to the acceleration of independent national economic development of our countries for the benefit of our peoples and humanity as a whole.	هدفا مشتركا للدول النامية ونحن نأمل ان يتم احراز تقدما مضطردا في القريب العاجل بأشكال جديدة من التعاون في حين اننا ندرك اهمية مواصلة حوار بناء بين دول الشمال والجنوب وذلك لهدف دفع عجلة التنمية للاقتصاد الوطنى المستقل لما فيه منفعة شعوبنا والانسانية جمعاء .		addition	
46-17	While recognizing the importance of the continuation of an effective North-South dialogue with a view to the acceleration of independent national economic development of our countries for the benefit of our peoples and humanity as a whole.	في حين اننا ندرك اهمية مواصلة حوار بناء بين دول الشمال والجنوب وذلك من اجل دفع عجلة التنمية للاقتصاد الوطنى المستقل لما فيه منفعة شعوبنا والانسانية جمعاء .	indef	zero	
47-1 E	A student pilot killed in a plane crash had flown solo for the first time the day before the accident, her family has revealed. Fiona McWilliam, 33, from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway, also dreamed of becoming an airline pilot and had spent hundreds of pounds on flying lessons.	كشفت عائلة فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية في مطار رينج وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها في حادث تحطم الطائرة بمفردها لأول مرة قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم وازافت العائلة بأن فيونا كانت تحلم بأن تصبح قائدة طائرة وقد صرفت مئات الجنيهات على دروس الطيران.	indef	Def. addition	3.9.1.6
47-2	A student pilot killed in a plane crash had flown solo for the first time the day before the accident, her family has revealed. Fiona McWilliam, 33, from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway, also dreamed of becoming an airline pilot and had spent hundreds of pounds on flying lessons.	كشفت عائلة فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية في مطار رينج وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها في حادث تحطم طائرة بمفردها لأول مرة قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم وازافت العائلة بأن فيونا كانت تحلم بأن تصبح قائدة طائرة وقد صرفت مئات الجنيهات على دروس الطيران.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
47-3	A student pilot killed in a plane crash had flown solo for the first time the day before the accident, her family has revealed. Fiona McWilliam, 33,	كشفت عائلة فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية في مطار رينج	def	Def al-	3.7.7

	from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway, also dreamed of becoming an airline pilot and had spent hundreds of pounds on flying lessons.	وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها فى حادث تحطم الطائرة بمفردها للمرة الاولى قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم وازافت العائلة بأن فيونا كانت تحلم بأن تصبح قائدة طائرة وقد صرفت مئات الجنيهات على دروس الطيران.			
47-4	A student pilot killed in a plane crash had flown solo for the first time the day before the accident, her family has revealed. Fiona McWilliams, 33, from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway	كشفت عائلة فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية فى مطار رينج وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها فى حادث تحطم الطائرة بمفردها للمرة الاولى قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
47-5	A student pilot killed in a plane crash had flown solo for the first time the day before the accident, her family has revealed. Fiona McWilliams, 33, from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway, also dreamed of becoming an airline pilot and had spent hundreds of pounds on flying lessons.	كشفت عائلة فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية فى مطار رينج وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها فى حادث تحطم الطائرة بمفردها للمرة الاولى قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم وازافت العائلة بأن فيونا كانت تحلم بأن تصبح قائدة طائرة وقد صرفت مئات الجنيهات على دروس الطيران.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
47-6	A student pilot killed in a plane crash had flown solo for the first time the day before the accident, her family has revealed. Fiona McWilliam, 33, from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway, also dreamed of becoming an airline pilot and had spent hundreds of pounds on flying lessons.	كشفت عائلة فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية فى مطار رينج وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها فى حادث تحطم الطائرة بمفردها للمرة الاولى قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم وازافت العائلة بأن فيونا كانت تحلم بأن تصبح قائدة طائرة وقد صرفت مئات الجنيهات على دروس الطيران.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
47-7	A student pilot killed in a plane crash had flown solo for the first time the day before the accident, her family has revealed. Fiona McWilliam, 33, from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway, also dreamed of becoming an airline pilot and had spent hundreds of pounds	كشفت عائلة فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية فى مطار رينج وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها فى حادث تحطم الطائرة بمفردها للمرة الاولى قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم وازافت العائلة بأن	zero	zero	3.7.1.4

	on flying lessons.	فيونا كانت تحلم بأن تصبح قائدة طائرة وقد صرفت مئات الجنيهات على دروس الطيران.			
47-8	Fiona McWilliam, 33, from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway, also dreamed of becoming an airline pilot and had spent hundreds of pounds on flying lessons.	فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية في مطار رينج وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها في حادث تحطم الطائرة بمفردها للمرة الاولى قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم وازافت العائلة بأن فيونا كانت تحلم بأن تصبح قائدة طائرة وقد صرفت مئات الجنيهات على دروس الطيران.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
47-9	A student pilot killed in a plane crash had flown solo for the first time the day before the accident, her family has revealed. Fiona McWilliam, 33, from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway, also dreamed of becoming an airline pilot and had spent hundreds of pounds on flying lessons.	كشفت عائلة فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية في مطار رينج وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها في حادث تحطم الطائرة بمفردها للمرة الاولى قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم وازافت العائلة بأن فيونا كانت تحلم بأن تصبح قائدة طائرة وقد صرفت مئات الجنيهات على دروس الطيران.	zero	Def through addition	3.8.1
47-10	A student pilot killed in a plane crash had flown solo for the first time the day before the accident, her family has revealed. Fiona McWilliam, 33, from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway, also dreamed of becoming an airline pilot and had spent hundreds of pounds on flying lessons.	كشفت عائلة فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية في مطار رينج وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها في حادث تحطم الطائرة بمفردها للمرة الاولى قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم وازافت العائلة بأن فيونا كانت تحلم بأن تصبح قائدة طائرة وقد صرفت مئات الجنيهات على دروس الطيران.	zero	al-	3.8.1
47-11	A student pilot killed in a plane crash had flown solo for the first time the day before the accident, her family has revealed. Fiona McWilliam, 33, from Macclesfield, who was an air traffic controller at Ringway, also dreamed of becoming an airline pilot and had spent hundreds of pounds	كشفت عائلة فيونا ماك ويليام طالبة الطيران والبالغة من العمر 33 عاما من مدينة ماكس فيلد والتي كانت مراقبة جوية في مطار رينج وى بأن ابنتهم قد لقت حتفها في حادث تحطم الطائرة بمفردها للمرة الاولى قبل وقوع الحادث بيوم وازافت العائلة بأن فيونا كانت	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.1

	on flying lessons.	تحلم بأن تصبح قائدة طائرة وقد صرفت مئات الجنيئات على دروس الطيران.			
47-12	She was a passenger in a Cessna 172 which crashed in Wales. Pilot Gareth Newton and Falklands War veteran Steve Mole, who were at the controls, were also killed.	والجدير بالذكر ان فيونا كانت راكب على متن طائرة من طراز سيسنا 172 والتي تحطمت في مقاطعة ويلز وكما لقي الطيار جارت نيوتن وستيف مول والذي شارك في حرب الفولك لاند حتقهما في الحادث ايضا.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
47-13	She was a passenger in a Cessna 172 which crashed in Wales. Pilot Gareth Newton and Falklands War veteran Steve Mole, who were at the controls, were also killed.	والجدير بالذكر ان فيونا كانت راكب على متن طائرة من طراز سيسنا 172 والتي تحطمت في مقاطعة ويلز وكما لقي الطيار جارت نيوتن وستيف مول والذي شارك في حرب الفولك لاند حتقهما في الحادث ايضا.	indef	zero	3.9.1.5
47-14	She was a passenger in a Cessna 172 which crashed in Wales. Pilot Gareth Newton and Falklands War veteran Steve Mole, who were at the controls, were also killed.	والجدير بالذكر ان فيونا كانت راكب على متن طائرة من طراز سيسنا 172 والتي تحطمت في مقاطعة ويلز وكما لقي الطيار جارت نيوتن وستيف مول والذي شارك في حرب الفولك لاند حتقهما في الحادث ايضا.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
47-15	She was a passenger in a Cessna 172 which crashed in Wales. Pilot Gareth Newton and Falklands War veteran Steve Mole, who were at the controls, were also killed.	والجدير بالذكر ان فيونا كانت راكب على متن طائرة من طراز سيسنا 172 والتي تحطمت في مقاطعة ويلز وكما لقي الطيار جارت نيوتن وستيف مول والذي شارك في حرب الفولك لاند حتقهما في الحادث ايضا.	zero	Def al-	3.7.1.4
47-16	She was a passenger in a Cessna 172 which crashed in Wales. Pilot Gareth Newton and Falklands War veteran Steve Mole, who were at the controls, were also killed.	والجدير بالذكر ان فيونا كانت راكب على متن طائرة من طراز سيسنا 172 والتي تحطمت في مقاطعة ويلز وكما لقي الطيار جارت نيوتن وستيف مول والذي شارك في حرب الفولك لاند حتقهما في الحادث ايضا.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
47-17	She was a passenger in a Cessna 172 which crashed in Wales. Pilot Gareth Newton and Falklands War veteran Steve Mole, who were at	والجدير بالذكر ان فيونا كانت راكب على متن طائرة من طراز سيسنا 172 والتي تحطمت في مقاطعة ويلز وكما لقي الطيار	zero	Definite through addition	3.7.1.4

	the controls, were also killed.	جارث نيوتن وستيف مول والذى شارك فى حرب الفولك لاند حقتهما فى الحادث ايضا.			
48-1 A	If children are to develop and grow into healthy and happy people they need food, warmth, shelter and love.	يحتاج الاطفال للغذاء والحنان والمأوى والحب لى ينمو ويصبحوا اناس سعداء واصحاء.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
48-2	If children are to develop and grow into healthy and happy people they need food, warmth, shelter and love.	يحتاج الاطفال للغذاء والحنان والمأوى والحب لى ينمو ويصبحوا اناس سعداء واصحاء.	zero	zero	3.8.1
48-3	If children are to develop and grow into healthy and happy people they need food, warmth, shelter and love.	يحتاج الاطفال للغذاء والحنان والمأوى والحب لى ينمو ويصبحوا اناس سعداء واصحاء.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
48-4	If children are to develop and grow into healthy and happy people they need food, warmth, shelter and love.	يحتاج الاطفال للغذاء والحنان والمأوى والحب لى ينمو ويصبحوا اناس سعداء واصحاء.	Zero	Def al-	3.8.2
48-5	If children are to develop and grow into healthy and happy people they need food, warmth, shelter and love.	يحتاج الاطفال للغذاء والحنان والمأوى والحب لى ينمو ويصبحوا اناسا سعداء واصحاء.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
48-6	These basic needs are normally happily met by parents, or other adult caregivers who take on the parental role.	فهذه الاحتياجات الاساسية يؤمنها عادة الوالدين او ولاة الامور الذين يقومون بدور الاباء بكل رحابة صدر	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
48-7	These basic needs are normally happily met by parents, or other adult caregivers who take on the parental role.	فهذه الاحتياجات الاساسية يؤمنها عادة الوالدين او ولاة الامور الذين يقومون بدور الاباء بكل رحابة صدر	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
48-8	Children are vulnerable and completely dependent on their parents to meet their needs.	الاطفال عفاء ويعتمدون كلياً على ابائهم فى تلبية احتياجاتهم	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
48-9	Children can be neglected because their parents put their own interests first or because their parents have to cope with difficult experiences such as divorce or bereavement.	من الممكن ان يتم اهمال الاطفال بسبب ان ابائهم يقدمون اهتماماتهم الخاصة اولا او انهم يتعرضون لصعوبات جمة مثل الطلاق او الوفاة لاحدهما.	zero	zero	3.8.1
48-10	Children can be neglected because their parents put their own interests first or because their parents have to cope with difficult experiences	من الممكن ان يتم اهمال الاطفال بسبب ان ابائهم يقدمون اهتماماتهم الخاصة اولا او انهم يتعرضون لصعوبات جمة مثل	zero	Def al-	3.8.2

	such as divorce or bereavement.	الطلاق أو الوفاة لاحدهما.			
48-11	Children can be neglected because their parents put their own interests first or because their parents have to cope with difficult experiences such as divorce or bereavement.	من الممكن ان يتم اهمال الاطفال بسبب ان ابائهم يقدمون اهتماماتهم الخاصة اولا او انهم يتعرضون لصعوبات جمة مثل الطلاق أو الوفاة لاحدهما.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
49-1 E	Most people tend to take a holiday at least once a year; for some people it is almost a duty.	يميل بعض الناس الى الاستمتاع باجازة مرة واحدة على الاقل في السنة وبالنسبة للبعض الاخر فهو امر ضرورى.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
49-2	Most people tend to take a holiday at least once a year; for some people it is almost a duty.	يميل بعض الناس الى الاستمتاع باجازة مرة واحدة على الاقل في السنة وبالنسبة للبعض الاخر فهو امر ضرورى.	indef	Def al-	3.9.1.5
49-3	Most people tend to take a holiday at least once a year; for some people it is almost a duty.	يميل بعض الناس الى الاستمتاع باجازة مرة واحدة على الاقل في السنة وبالنسبة للبعض الاخر فهو امر ضرورى.	indef	zero	3.9.1.5
49-4	Due to the highest standard of living, people especially from the developed countries, do not hesitate to spend large amounts of money on the pleasure of having a break far from their permanent residence.	ونتيجة لمستوى المعيشة المرتفع فان الناس خاصة من الدول المتطورة لا يترددون فى انفاق اموال طائلة بغية الحصول على المتعة بعيدا عن اماكن مساكنهم المعتمدة.	def	Definite through addition	3.7.1.2
49-5	Due to the highest standard of living, people especially from the developed countries, do not hesitate to spend large amounts of money on the pleasure of having a break far from their permanent residence.	ونتيجة لمستوى المعيشة المرتفع فان الناس خاصة من الدول المتطورة لا يترددون فى انفاق اموال طائلة بغية الحصول على المتعة بعيدا عن اماكن مساكنهم المعتمدة.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
49-6	Due to the highest standard of living, people especially from the developed countries, do not hesitate to spend large amounts of money on the pleasure of having a break far from their permanent residence.	ونتيجة لمستوى المعيشة المرتفع فان الناس خاصة من الدول المتطورة لا يترددون فى انفاق اموال طائلة بغية الحصول على المتعة بعيدا عن اماكن مساكنهم المعتمدة.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.5
49-7	Due to the highest standard of living, people especially from the developed countries, do not hesitate to spend large amounts of money on the pleasure of having a break far from their permanent residence.	ونتيجة لمستوى المعيشة المرتفع فان الناس خاصة من الدول المتطورة لا يترددون فى انفاق اموال طائلة بغية الحصول على المتعة بعيدا عن اماكن مساكنهم المعتمدة.	zero	zero	3.8.1

49-8	Due to the highest standard of living, people especially from the developed countries, do not hesitate to spend large amounts of money on the pleasure of having a break far from their permanent residence.	ونتيجة لمستوى المعيشة المرتفع فإن الناس خاصة من الدول المتطورة لا يترددون في انفاق اموال طائلة بغية الحصول على المتعة بعيدا عن اماكن مساكنهم المعتمدة.	def	Def through addition	3.7.1.2
49-9	Due to the highest standard of living, people especially from the developed countries, do not hesitate to spend large amounts of money on the pleasure of having a break far from their permanent residence.	ونتيجة لمستوى المعيشة المرتفع فإن الناس خاصة من الدول المتطورة لا يترددون في انفاق اموال طائلة بغية الحصول على المتعة بعيدا عن اماكن مساكنهم المعتمدة.	indef	Def al--	3.7.1.2
49-10	Travel agencies and tourism companies have capitalized on this trend; they display advertisements and attractive pictures, and offer affordable prices with the aim of enticing more people to travel the world on holiday.	مما ادى بوكالات السفر والسياحة الى الاستثمار في هذا المجال فهم يعرضون الاعانات والصور الجذابة ويقدمون اسعار مغرية لهدف جذب الكثير من الناس للسفر لقضاء الاجازات حول العالم.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.1
49-11	Travel agencies and tourism companies have capitalized on this trend; they display advertisements and attractive pictures, and offer affordable prices with the aim of enticing more people to travel the world on holiday.	مما ادى بوكالات السفر والسياحة الى الاستثمار في هذا المجال فهم يعرضون الاعانات والصور الجذابة ويقدمون اسعار مغرية لهدف جذب الكثير من الناس للسفر لقضاء الاجازات حول العالم.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.1
49-12	Travel agencies and tourism companies have capitalized on this trend; they display advertisements and attractive pictures, and offer affordable prices with the aim of enticing more people to travel the world on holiday.	مما ادى بوكالات السفر والسياحة الى الاستثمار في هذا المجال فهم يعرضون الاعلانات والصور الجذابة ويقدمون اسعار مغرية لهدف جذب الكثير من الناس للسفر لقضاء الاجازات حول العالم.	zero	Def al--	3.8.1
49-13	Travel agencies and tourism companies have capitalized on this trend; they display advertisements and attractive pictures, and offer affordable prices with the aim of enticing more people to travel the world on holiday.	مما ادى بوكالات السفر والسياحة الى الاستثمار في هذا المجال فهم يعرضون الاعلانات والصور الجذابة ويقدمون اسعار مغرية لهدف جذب الكثير من الناس للسفر لقضاء الاجازات حول العالم.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
49-14	Travel agencies and tourism companies have capitalized on this trend; they display	مما ادى بوكالات السفر والسياحة الى الاستثمار في هذا	zero	zero	3.8.1

	advertisements and attractive pictures, and offer affordable prices with the aim of enticing more people to travel the world on holiday.	المجال، فهم يعرضون الاعلانات والصور الجذابة ويقدمون أسعار مغرية لهدف جذب الكثير من الناس للسفر لقضاء الاجازات حول العالم.			
49-15	With the aim of enticing more people to travel the world on holiday.	لهدف جذب الكثير من الناس للسفر لقضاء الاجازات حول العالم.	def	Def through addition	3.7.1.2
49-16	Travel agencies and tourism companies have capitalized on this trend; they display advertisements and attractive pictures, and offer affordable prices with the aim of enticing more people to travel the world on holiday.	مما ادى بوكالات السفر والسياحة الى الاستثمار فى هذا المجال، فهم يعرضون الاعلانات والصور الجذابة ويقدمون اسعار مغرية لهدف جذب الكثير من الناس للسفر لقضاء الاجازات حول العالم.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
49-17	the aim of enticing more people to travel the world on holiday.	لهدف جذب الكثير من الناس للسفر لقضاء الاجازات حول العالم.	zero	Def al-	3.8.12
49-18	Holidaymakers tend to travel to tropical and coastal towns	يميل السياح الى السفر الى المدن الاستوائية والساحلية	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
49-19	Holidaymakers tend to travel to tropical and coastal towns	يميل السياح الى السفر الى المدن الاستوائية والساحلية	zero	Def al--	3.8.1
49-20	Holidaymakers tend to travel to tropical and coastal towns where they can enjoy permanent sunshine, beaches and extensive forest areas.	يميل السياح الى السفر الى المدن الاستوائية والساحلية حيث يمكنهم الاستمتاع بأشعة الشمس والشواطئ ومناطق الغابات الكثيفة.	zero	Definite through addition	3.8.2
49-21	Holidaymakers tend to travel to tropical and coastal towns where they can enjoy permanent sunshine, beaches and extensive forest areas.	يميل السياح الى السفر الى المدن الاستوائية والساحلية حيث يمكنهم الاستمتاع بأشعة الشمس والشواطئ ومناطق الغابات الكثيفة.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
50-1 A	Another harmful effect of tourism is the damage it causes to the environment.	من التأثيرات السيئة للسياحة هو الضرر الذى تسببه للبيئة.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
50-2	Another harmful effect of tourism is the damage it causes to the environment.	من التأثيرات السيئة للسياحة هو الضرر الذى تسببه للبيئة.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.2
50-3	Another harmful effect of tourism is the damage it causes to the environment.	من التأثيرات السيئة للسياحة هو الضرر الذى تسببه للبيئة.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3

50-4	The Mediterranean Sea has one of the dirtiest coastlines in the world.	تعتبر سواحل البحر المتوسط احد اكثر السواحل تلوتا فى العالم.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.5
50-5	The Mediterranean Sea has one of the dirtiest coastlines in the world.	تعتبر سواحل البحر المتوسط احد اكثر السواحل تلوتا فى العالم.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.6
50-6	The Mediterranean Sea has one of the dirtiest coastlines in the world.	تعتبر سواحل البحر المتوسط احد اكثر السواحل تلوتا فى العالم.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
50-7	Tens of millions of tons of oil, industrial waste, chemicals and sewage are pumped into the sea every year.	عشرات الملايين من الاطنان من الزيوت والنفايات الصناعية والكيميائية والصرف الصحى فى البحر سنويا.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
50-8	Tens of millions of tons of oil, industrial waste, chemicals and sewage are pumped into the sea every year.	عشرات الملايين من الاطنان من الزيوت والنفايات الصناعية والكيميائية والصرف الصحى فى البحر سنويا.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
50-9	Tens of millions of tons of oil, industrial waste, chemicals and sewage are pumped into the sea every year.	عشرات الملايين من الاطنان من الزيوت والنفايات الصناعية والكيميائية والصرف الصحى فى البحر سنويا.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
50-10	Tens of millions of tons of oil, industrial waste, chemicals and sewage are pumped into the sea every year.	عشرات الملايين من الاطنان من الزيوت والنفايات الصناعية والكيميائية والصرف الصحى فى البحر سنويا.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
50-11	Tens of millions of tons of oil, industrial waste, chemicals and sewage are pumped into the sea every year.	عشرات الملايين من الاطنان من الزيوت والنفايات الصناعية والكيميائية والصرف الصحى فى البحر سنويا.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
50-12	Tens of millions of tons of oil, industrial waste, chemicals and sewage are pumped into the sea every year.	عشرات الملايين من الاطنان من الزيوت والنفايات الصناعية والكيميائية والصرف الصحى فى البحر سنويا.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.1
50-13	Even if oil escapes from ships many miles out at sea, the currents send everything in towards the coast.	حتى عندما يتسرب الزيوت من السفن اميال عديدة فى البحر فان التيارات تدفع كل شى فى اتجاه الساحل.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
50-14	Even if oil escapes from ships many miles out at sea, the currents send everything in towards the coast.	حتى عندما يتسرب الزيوت من السفن اميال عديدة فى البحر فان التيارات تدفع كل شى فى اتجاه الساحل.	zero	Def al-	3.8.1
50-15	Even if oil escapes from ships many miles out at sea, the currents send everything in towards the coast.	حتى عندما يتسرب الزيوت من السفن اميال عديدة فى البحر فان التيارات تدفع كل شى فى اتجاه الساحل.	zero	Def al-	3.8.12

50-16	Even if oil escapes from ships many miles out at sea, the currents send everything in towards the coast.	حتى عندما يتسرب الزيوت من السفن اميال عديدة فى البحر فان التيارات تدفع كل شى فى اتجاه الساحل.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
50-17	Even if oil escapes from ships many miles out at sea, the currents send everything in towards the coast.	حتى عندما يتسرب الزيوت من السفن اميال عديدة فى البحر فان التيارات تدفع كل شى فى اتجاه الساحل .	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
50-18	It piles up around the shores and causes diseases like typhoid, dysentery, hepatitis and cholera.	انها تتراكم حول الشواطى وتسبب امراض مثل التهاب الكبد التيفود والزحار والكوليرا	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
50-19	It piles up around the shores and causes diseases like the typhoid, dysentery, hepatitis and cholera.	انها تتراكم حول الشواطى وتسبب امراض مثل التهاب الكبد التيفود والزحار والكوليرا	zero	Def al-	3.8.8
50-20	It piles up around the shores and causes diseases like typhoid, the dysentery, hepatitis and cholera.	انها تتراكم حول الشواطى وتسبب امراض مثل التهاب الكبد التيفود والزحار والكوليرا	zero	Def al-	3.8.8
50-21	It piles up around the shores and causes diseases like typhoid, dysentery, hepatitis and the cholera.	انها تتراكم حول الشواطى وتسبب امراض مثل التهاب الكبد التيفود والزحار والكوليرا	zero	Def al-	3.8.8
51-1 E	For children troubled with incontinence of urine at the night	للأطفال الذين يعانون من التبول الارادى فى الليل .	zero	Def al-	3.8.6
52-1 E	We can't have what I planned for the breakfast?	لا يمكننا تناول ما خططنا له لوجبة الافطار ؟	zero	Def al-	3.8.7
52-2	This recipe requires the butter and I do not have any.	تتطلب الوصفة بعض الزبدة وليس لدينا زيد.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
52-3	Let's go out for the lunch with your wife Jane?	دعنا نذهب لتناول الغذاء مع زوجتك جين؟	zero	Def al-	3.8.7
52-4	Let's go out for lunch with your wife the Jane?	دعنا نذهب لتناول الغذاء مع زوجتك جين؟	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
52-5	No, she is busy. She is having the lunch with the manager of her office.	لا تستطيع الذهاب معنا لانها ستتناول الغذاء مع مدير مكتبها.	zero	Def al-	3.8.7
52-6	No, she is busy. She is having lunch with the manager of her office.	لا تستطيع الذهاب معنا لانها ستتناول الغذاء مع مدير مكتبها.	def	Def through addition	3.7.1.2
53-1 E	I was in the bed with the flu last night.	كنت فى السري مصابا بالانفلونزا الليلة الماضية	zero	Def al-	3.8.11
53-2	I was in bed with the flu last night.	كنت فى السري مصابا بالانفلونزا الليلة الماضية	def	Def al-	3.8.8

53-3	How did you pass the time?	كيف امضيت الوقت؟	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
53-4	I listened to the radio a lot.	استمعت الى الراديو كثيرا.	def	Def al-	3.7.7
54.1 E	I went to the bed last night.	ذهبت الى السرير لانام الليلة الماضية.	zero	Def al-	3.8.11
54-2	I lay awake at the night.	بقيت مستلقي منتصف الليل.	zero	def	3.8.6
54-3	Finally I decided to go early in the morning and buy it.	واخيرا قررت ان اذهب في الصباح واشترته	def	Def	3.8.6
55-1 E	I go to town by bus and come back by the train.	اذهب الى البلدة بالحافلة واعد بالقطار.	zero	Def al-	3.8.4
55-2	Last week we were at the town.	الاسبوع الماضي كنا في البلدة.	zero	def	3.8.10
55-3	We performed an experiment to see how rust forms on metal.	قمنا بتجربة لكيفية تشكل الصدأ على المعادن.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
55-4	An experiment to see how the rust forms on metal.	قمنا بتجربة لكيفية تشكل الصدأ على المعادن.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
55-5	An experiment to see how rust forms on the metal.	قمنا بتجربة لكيفية تشكل الصدأ على المعادن.	zero	Def al-	3.8.2
55-6	We dipped pieces of iron in water and left them for half an hour.	قمنا بغطس قطع من الحديد في الماء وتركناهم لنصف ساعة.	indef	zero	3.9.1.5
55-7	An alloy is a mixture of metals.	السبيكة هي خليط من المعادن.	indef	Def al-	3.9.1.2
56-1 A	The Students are asked to pay their fees before the beginning of the term.	على الطلبة المعنيين دفع الرسوم الدراسية قبل بداية الفصل.	zero	def	3.8.10
56-2	Students are asked to pay their fees before the beginning of the term.	على الطلبة المعنيين دفع الرسوم الدراسية قبل بداية الفصل.	def	Def through addition	3.7.1.2
57-1 A	He attended the dinner in honor of Minister.	حضر عشاء على شرف الوزير.	zero	zero	
57-2	What would you like for the breakfast? Eggs or cheese? A tea or a coffee?	ماذا ترغب لوجبة الافطار؟ بعض البيض ام بعض الجبن؟ شاي او قهوة؟	zero	Def al-	3.8.7
57-3	What would you like for breakfast? Eggs or cheese? A tea or a coffee?	ماذا ترغب لوجبة الافطار؟ بعض البيض ام بعض الجبن؟ شاي او قهوة؟	indef	zero	3.8.2
57-4	What would you like for breakfast? Eggs or cheese? A tea or a coffee?	ماذا ترغب لوجبة الافطار؟ بعض البيض ام بعض الجبن؟ شاي او قهوة؟	indef	zero	3.8.2

57-5	Could you pass the salt, please?	هل تسمح بتمرير الملح من فضلك.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
57-6	It was a nice breakfast.	انه افطار رائع.	zero	zero	3.8.2
57-7	Now will you please help clear the table?	مسرورة لسماع ذلك. هل تساعدنى فى تنظيف الطاولة ؟	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
58-1 A	A Summer is the warmest season	فصل الصيف هو الفصل الادفى	zero	Def al-	3.8.5
58-2	Summer is the warmest season, but the summer of 1971 was usually cool.	فصل الصيف هو الفصل الادفى الا ان صيف عام 1971 كان بارد قليلا.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.6
58-3	Summer is the warmest season, but the summer of 1971 was usually cool.	فصل الصيف هو الفصل الادفى الا ان صيف عام 1971 كان بارد قليلا.	def	zero	3.8.5
59-1 E	The Philadelphia which Mr. Johnson knows so well is a heritage of colonial times.	ان فيلادلفيا التى يعرفها السيد جونسون ثرات من اوقات الاحتلال.	def	zero	3.7.1.2
59-2	The Philadelphia which Mr. a Johnson knows so well is a heritage of colonial times.	ان فيلادلفيا التى يعرفها السيد جونسون ثرات من اوقات الاحتلال.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
59-3	The Philadelphia which Mr. Johnson knows so well is a heritage of colonial times.	ان فيلادلفيا التى يعرفها السيد جونسون ثرات من اوقات الاحتلال.	indef	zero	3.9.1.2
59-4	The Philadelphia which Mr. Johnson knows so well is a heritage of a colonial times.	ان فيلادلفيا التى يعرفها السيد جونسون ثرات من اوقات الاحتلال .	zero	Def through addition	3.8.1
60-1 E	We will go to a Paris at Christmas.	سنذهب الى باريس فى الميلاد.	zero	zero	3.7.1.4
60-2	We will go to Paris at a Christmas.	سنذهب الى باريس فى الميلاد.	zero	Def al-	3.7.14
60-3	We booked the tickets three months in advance.	حجزنا التذاكر منذ ثلاثة اشهر.	def	Def al-	3.7.1.3
60-4	My relatives will be here during the Christmas.	كانوا اقاربى هنا فى عيد الميلاد .	def	Def al-	3.7.1.4
60-5	Thirteen. I should buy a milk.	ثلاثة عشر. يجب ان اشترى بعض الحليب .	zero	Def al-	3.8.2

